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ABSTRACT

Drawn from a 1985 conference focusing on curriculum for small college speech communication programs, the articles in this journal issue deal with issues related to curriculum development and enrichment in small colleges. Articles in the first section discuss chairing the small department. Specific topics addressed include speech communication departments and the "college of character," the small college environment, administrative style, departmental administration, problems confronting speech communication faculty, and developing an Anglo-American communication program. Articles in the second section deal with five administrative issues: staffing the small department, program evaluation, curriculum development, co-curricular programs, and faculty development. Among the specific topics discussed are the following: small college teaching as a career option, strategies for seeking employment in the small college, achieving success in small colleges, the speech tutor program, external evaluation of small college communication programs, conducting a departmental review, teaching the basic course from a theme perspective, the theatre program of limited size, the small college director of forensics, and integrating forensics into the speech curriculum. (EL)

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Issue #54

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A Theme Issue

Edited By

Bonnie Wilson Buzza and Robert N. Hall

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ADMINISTERING THE SMALL COLLEGE PROGRAM: AN INTRODUCTION

Bonnie Wilson Buzza

During the summer of 1985 a group of some forty faculty members and department chairs from small colleges throughout the United States met at Hope College, Holland, Michigan, to discuss an essential curriculum for small speech communication programs. This was a landmark conference for the group. Planned by Roger Smitter of Albion College and Joseph MacDoniels of Hope College, it marked the start of a second phase in the coordinated development of small college speech programs. This new phase most likely will focus on curriculum development and the related development of faculty members in the teaching of the courses, increased scholarship and professional involvement of faculty members who teach in small college programs, and more meaningful interaction between administrators of small college speech programs and directors of graduate studies who, on the one hand, receive many students from small programs and, on the other hand, are and will continue to be called upon to provide the faculty members for these small colleges. Along with the increasingly active Small College Committee of the Speech Communication Association there exists within the American Theatre Association the Theatre Programs of Limited Size group, another professional body dedicated to the understanding and development of the role of smaller programs within the larger professional context.

This issue of the *Bulletin* includes papers and opinions of those organizations which laid the foundation for the 1985 curriculum conference. Colleagues administering or teaching in smaller programs have been addressing issues of shared professional concern for the past several years both within the formal contexts of national and regional conventions, and within the informal contexts of newsletters, action caucuses, and ad hoc committees. In this issue of the *Bulletin* many of the ideas have been drawn together in both an acknowledgement of the work done in those earlier contexts and in a sharpening of the focus on the work yet to be done--done by both speech and theatre professionals in smaller programs and by their colleagues in larger institutions whose relationship to small college speech programs is only beginning to be fully realized.

In the first section, Chairing the Small Department, Roger Smitter, one of the first chairs of the SCA Small College Committee, directs attention to general issues of administrative concern in the smaller department. Bonnie Wilson Buzza describes the environment within which the chair or director of a small college program lives and works, Joseph MacDoniels suggests an administrative style effective within that context, and James F. Roever, the past president of the ACA, responds to their presentations. Then Dale Jackson and Sandra Manheimer provide perspectives on concerns faced in small college programs. To close the section Terence Jackson describes the challenges in developing a program not simply where no such program exists, but where the discipline of speech communication does not exist.

Following these general considerations, five issues are addressed which are of particular concern to administrators of small college programs. First is Staffing the Small Department in which the hiring and tenuring of faculty members (Ellen Hay, Sandra Madsen, and Richard Platt) and the use of undergraduates as tutors and teaching assistants (Alan Lerstrom and Joseph O'Rourke are discussed.

Second, Platt, Jane Kennedy Dale, and MacDoniels describe Program Evaluation formats and experiences.

Third, Curriculum Development is descibed in a paper by Smitter and MacDoniels. Then aspects of the basic course at the small college are considered. Three papers, RayLene Tapia, Marion Sitzmann, and Richard Goldstein and Charles Nelson, discuss a combined English-speech curriculum as the basic course. Then Kathie Webster suggests a reorganization of the introductory course around an integrating theme and Gary LaFleur considers alternative models to provide responses in the public speaking course. Finally, Joe Ortiz suggests a move out of the traditional classroom into the resources of the community.

Many small colleges maintain active Co-Curricular Programs in forensics, debate, and theatre. James DeYoung, David File, and Pamela Wegner provide insight into the development and management of meaningful theatre programs of limited size. In the area of forensics and debate, Deborah Ballard-Reisch surveys forensic and debate programs at smaller institutions, while Jay VerLinden and Peter Settle take opposite approaches to the relationship of forensic and debate activities in small college speech programs.

Finally the issues of Faculty Development are addressed, first by Settle who speaks to the need for scholarship and professional activity among small college faculty members, then by David Droge who describes research activities in small programs, and by Hay who describes a model for improving classroom teaching.

In 1986 issues of the *Bulletin* Claude Mathis of the Center for the Teaching Profession at Northwestern University will respond to issues raised in papers by Bernard Duffy, Lawrence Rosenfield, and Halford Ryan concerning broader faculty development needs. Kenneth Andersen

will consider the role of the American Association of University Professors in the small college; Richard Kaough will share data on publishing by small college faculty; Rex Mix will review the history of the development of small college committees within the professional associations; Ellen Hay will present a plan for use of cable television in the basic course; and Thomas Duncanson and Alberto Gonzalez will explore program development and faculty satisfaction.

Alvin Goldberg of the University of Denver wrote in the "Introduction" to the 1982 publication *Doing What We Do Best: Innovations in Teaching at the Small College: The papers clearly are of as much value to faculty members at large or medium-sized colleges are they are to small college faculty. I left the session where these papers were first presented with a sense of well being and with an optimism about the future of the speech communication discipline. Speech communication can and will maintain its strength during periods of limited or diminishing resources if members of the discipline listen to and learn from each other.*

This issue of the *Bulletin* formally initiates that dialogue among communication arts and sciences administrators. Future issues of the *Bulletin* will, I am certain, continue the dialogue

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SPEECH COMMUNICATION DEPARTMENTS AND THE COLLEGE OF CHARACTER

Roger Smitter

The current vitality of undergraduate education in the communication arts and sciences shows in the new courses and new programs that have appeared in recent years. Small colleges have proud traditions in communication. Faculty provide innovative methods of instruction. The field enjoys popularity among undergraduate students these days.

However, this strength will continue only if communication departments heed warning signs in undergraduate liberal arts education today. The faculty must articulate how program contributes to the special character of each college.

Howard, Martin, in *College of Character*, identifies professionalism and fragmentation within the curriculum as an enemy of quality undergraduate instruction. Specifically, the claim that students learn too little of the meaning of history (everything is taught to be in process), that knowledge arises from popular opinion or government authority, that the goal of human interaction is agreement through compromise, and that the goal of individual existence is personal fulfillment.[1]

Communication instructors at undergraduate liberal arts colleges should take note. Whether they openly label the field as outside the liberal arts or attack some of the assumptions which undergird the profession, these critics provide a signal for the future. An incorrect or careless reading of a communication curriculum might lead some on a campus to question how much of what is being taught belongs in the liberal arts.

To affirm their place on campuses, these departments need to answer Martin's call for colleges of character. These, Martin, says, are distinguished by their *disciplined, evident, enduring commitment to principle, usually to goals and purposes seen as moral and ethical, expressed individually and institutionally.*[2] Such schools, says Martin, are best suited to withstand the demands of the future.

Such colleges also need departments of character. However, if communication departments are to have such character, they must face up to a series of inter-related and difficult questions. This paper outlines some of those questions and begins to articulate some answers.

1. Why does speech communication belong in the liberal arts? At many small colleges liberal arts is the term with which faculty and administrators can begin their answer to Martin's call for character. The question pushes a faculty to the very core of its discipline.

Given the changes in communication in recent years, few outside the field understand this new communication. Faculty committees and deans making decisions concerning new courses, hiring, and tenure ask what distinguishes communication from sociology, anthropology, or psychology. Some see the field (regardless of what it is called) as concerned only with articulation skills or with manipulating studio dials. Others believe that communication is total: theatre, speech, and mass media. Still others ask why certain prestige liberal arts colleges offer no communication courses.

Certainly statements are needed on the field focusing on humans as symbol users, on ancient roots and on the concern with ethics. Answers also should show how a knowledge of the media can affect society or of how humans structure interaction to assist in liberating students from ignorance. Communication classes should focus on theory and research as well as skills and activities.

Because of its eclectic nature, communication can do more than reaffirm the liberal arts faith. Both Gamson and Martin define liberal learning not as subject matter per se but rather as the development of a student's ability to integrate the diverse parts of knowledge.[3] Such teaching is rare today on liberal arts campuses, they say. Communication can move into this vacuum. At its core, the subject matter of communication provides a place for integrating knowledge about human interaction. Such a step may demand that communication faculty widen their perspectives, but it is a viable tool for addressing questions about the liberal arts.

2. What holds the speech communication curriculum together? Answers for the first two questions work together to develop a department of character. A department needs to provide students with a curriculum which is a coherent and a distinctive part of the liberal arts.

Each department should build its own major requirements in a coherent manner. Models for doing so abound. The particular definition of liberal arts on a campus provides some basis for a model. Some schools use their historical roots, religious affiliation, or, perhaps, even geographic location as beginning points. On other campuses, the overlap with

related disciplines may make sense. Others may develop several tracks around a common core of courses. In another vein, the information on student development theory provides an equally viable principle. Whatever model is chosen, the point remains that a department of character needs an organizing principle.

A study of departmental requirements across the nation by MacDoniels and Smitter found liberal arts communication programs high on distinctiveness but low on coherence. The most frequently required course, public speaking, was demanded of all majors at only 25% of the schools. Further, few departments had a hierarchical set of requirements in which work of one course provided the basis for another. Speech as performance and not as theory seems to be the principle which best described the requirements in most departments.

Since the study, a call has been made for a conference of liberal arts faculty to identify the essential curriculum in communcation.[4] Such a statement could produce several benefits. Departments would have a position from which to argue when defending their programs or seeking additions to those programs. The field would take a step in the direction of becoming more coherent. Graduates of individual programs would share some commonalities. Prerequisites for majors could be established.

Whether such agreement could be reached is open to question. Compromise never pleases everyone. Some programs may have to give up their distinguishing characteristics. A sponsoring agency would need to endorse the agreement. There are no easy answers, but the questions are worth explaining.

3. How does the department deal with the explosion of student interest in the media, public relations and advertising? A generation of college students raised in the age of mass media hears that communication is a solid career.[5]

The fragmentation which marks contemporary society generates a need for professionals who can communicate increasingly specialized knowledge to the broad public. Careers in news, advertising, and public relations often seem glamorous to undergraduates.

Departments must hurdle difficult barriers. The technology required for a solid program demands a substantial financial investment. Colleagues in other departments may argue that the technology and skills orientation of such courses only serve narrow career interests at the expense of the liberal arts.

Finding the people willing and able to teach media with the liberal arts perspective sometimes creates a problem. Media instructors seem to enjoy a seller's market. For example, approximately 36% of the positions listed in three November, 1984, to January, 1985, issues of the SCA *Spectra* required some form of specialization in media. Finding the right person for a small campus could be difficult.

At a broader level, questions exist about the validity of a liberal arts department offering too much in media-related work. If an ability to integrate diverse bits of information, to express ideas clearly, to think critically, and to learn from experience are essential skills in media, then a liberally trained speech major would be ideally suited for a media career. Given this assumption, speech departments need not change their traditional course offerings in order to prepare students. In fact, students may be better served by taking a wide variety of courses across the curriculum and minimizing the communication work.

Most departments, however, believe that communication does offer students something of value for media careers. Indeed, given the power of the media, preparing liberally educated persons rather than narrowly trained technicians would seem to be incumbent on liberal arts colleges. And, of course, attractive course offerings translate into glowing departmental FTE statistics.

If it is agreed that speech departments must adress the effects the new communication technology has on society, then Media theory classes, coupled with field internships, can meet some of the student demand without requiring extensive investments in technology or in specialists. Perhaps it also can be agreed that, except for a very few schools in special circumstances, liberal arts colleges would be advised not to develop extensive production-oriented programs. Departments must make the case of the validity of liberal arts preparation for media careers. Students also need to understand that undergraduate colleges cannot compete with large universities in providing technology, just as the large universities cannot compete with professional media operations in acquiring state-of-the-art equipment.

4. How will faculty members retain a sense of excitement about teaching undergraduates? All departments at an undergraduate institution must answer this question. Yet, the problems in communication seem special because the field has taken so many directions. Faculty members with perhaps a decade of potentially productive work ahead of them face demands never envisioned during their graduate school days thirty years ago.

Faculty development and retraining programs provide one solution. Such programs must rekindle excitement about teaching as well as provide techniques. They also must recognize that communication faculty may face major shifts in focus, from theatre to public relations, for example, which require extensive role reorientation as well as retraining.

Involvement in professional organizations provides another solution. Associations must recognize that the focus on research which marks many national meetings holds little interest for the teacher at a liberal arts college. However, the faculty member also must recognize that research is a route to enhanced teaching. Faculty in small colleges publish too little in proportion to their numbers and expertise. Kaough found that only 8.4% of the 1300 published articles in Speech Communication Association or regional journals from 1979 to 1983 came from faculty at schools of less than 5000 students.[6]

College administrations also must supply the time and resources for faculty who want to be active researchers. Broader definitions of research will better describe what undergraduate faculty do.

Departments can create funding channels which allow faculty members to be active in professional conferences. For example, a small departmental travel allowance could be rotated among department members so that each attends a national conference every third or fourth year.

Another resource might be a liberal arts college network by which faculty can make one or two-day visits to similar campuses. For example, the person responsible for the small group course at one college would be able to observe a colleague with the same responsibility at another campus, compare teaching methods, and share syllabi. While college consortia could take this task on, the professional associations would be advised to attempt it if for no other reason than to build interest in memberships among liberal arts faculty.

5. Where will liberal arts colleges find the next generation of communication generalists? The faculty described under question four will, of course, retire, many in the next fifteen years. Given the demands of teaching at a small school, many have carved out unique roles on their campuses, teaching courses in two or more sub-fields within the discipline. As with classic automobiles, for which replacement parts are hard to find, their retirements will prompt difficult decisions about curricular offerings. Departments will need to rethink which areas of their curricular responsibility should be replaced, which areas can be eliminated, or which areas can be combined.

One problem is that too few graduate schools produce the generalist which the liberal arts colleges require. Some graduate schools might wisely position themselves in a crowded marketplace to be the source for rigorously trained PhD's who have the talents and interests to teach an introductory course each semester, teach in their specialty and in another area as well, advise undergraduates, and participate in faculty governance.

Liberal arts communication departments need to show graduate students that life on the small campus, while a busy one, has its rewards. Chief among these is contact with generally bright and energetic students who have chosen the college for a special reason. While the September to June calendar is a full one, summers provide ample opportunity to pursue individual research interests. Contact with colleagues from other disciplines provides an intellectually stimulating environment not always available in the more insular university setting.

6. Will there be departments of character in the future? The answer is not easy to predict. Each of the questions posed here overlap. Becoming a department of character requires understanding how the liberal arts are defined on a campus. It also means knowing how the current configuration of faculty talents and department requirements mesh with that definition. Developing a coherent curriculum may force departments to reconsider their liberal arts mission. Such examination may lead to needs for faculty development or retraining. The search for a new faculty member may cause the department to revise curriculum since each faculty member can interpret the liberal arts mission in a different way.

No set of questions provides a complete plan for becoming a department of character. No doubt other questions would suit specific situations. Many communication departments provide models in such an endeavor. Others exist in colleges of character and can use that environment to become distinctive. Still others may have to lead their campuses in this direction.

Maintaining or achieving character is a worthy goal. Undergraduate liberal arts institutions have been and will continue to be excellent places to teach and study communication. Departments which develop a distinctive character can take hope from Martin's words: *My experience showed that the educational institution best suited to deal with many of the serious problems besetting colleges and universities, as well as the culture at large, is the undergraduate liberal arts college....*[7]

Endnotes

[1]Howard Martin, *College of Character* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982), pp. 11-16.

[2]*Ibid.*, p. 19.

[3]Zelda Gamson, *Liberating Education* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984), pp. 124-130; Martin, p. 55.

[4]Joe MacDoniels, *Shall We Have an 'Essential Undergraduate Curriculum'?*, paper presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Chicago, November 3, 1984.

[5]See R. W. Bly and G. Blake, *Dream Jobs* (New York: Wiley, 1983).

[6]Richard Kaough, *Faculty Development and Professional Development*, paper presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Chicago, November 3, 1984.

[7]Martin, *op.cit.*, p. XIX.

THE SMALL COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

Bonnie Wilson Buzza

If there is a factor that characterizes the small college environment, it is teaching. Small colleges frequently describe themselves as primarily teaching institutions: for example, the Great Lakes Colleges Association describes its members, in its twenty-fifth anniversary report, as having atmospheres which, based on a philosophical commitment to the liberal arts and encouraged by the small campus sizes, favor teaching.

Just as teaching characterizes the small college environment, there is one factor that characterizes the small college teacher. It is the perception that he or she teaches in an environment that is significantly different from that found at larger institutions. This idea is expressed over and over among small college faculty members at regional and national gatherings. At times, this attitude has puzzled colleagues from larger institutions who have wondered why there is a need for a small college committee or who have suggested that small college faculty might join with community college faculty rather than develop separate interest groups within regional and national associations. The argument presented in this paper is that the environmental difference between a large and a small institution is not simply one of scale, but rather is a qualitative as well as quantitative difference. The point being stressed is that dyad-triad-small group-large group-and public communication environments are different in certain ways. Many of these differences can be extended into the institutional environment based on size of a department is faculty.

There are four points of difference that need to be addressed: emphasis on teaching, multiple roles and responsibilities, use of informal channels, and institutional loyalties. While a given larger institution may have one or more of these characteristics, a small institution must have all four. Furthermore, these four factors overlap and interrelate, making it difficult to discuss one without discussing the others.

The Teaching Context

At a small college people are hired to be teachers--not researchers and not researcher/teachers. Faculty may do research, but that is an extra--done because the person wants to keep professionally involved or because of a personal interest, maybe because one has discovered that all institutions now expect it of its faculty. In either case, however, little or no release time will be provided to conduct that research, and the faculty is still expected to maintain a high quality of teaching in the classrooms. When the time comes to evaluate contributions, teaching still will be looked at first. Publications and service will be considered as well, but they will not replace adequate teaching performance.

This quality of teaching will be especially significant because, given a small speech faculty, students will take many of their classes, for example, from the same person. Their background in speech is distinctively marked by that faculty member, both in style and content. If that faculty member also plans the overall speech curriculum, this influence can extend quite deeply. The quality of the students' learning depends very greatly on three, two, or even one teacher--much more so than at an institution of a larger size. Many small colleges have senior professors with many years of teaching at that college; they personally influence their programs and their majors.

Replacing one of these professors becomes a considerable problem, either temporarily should there be a leave taken, or permanently should be professor retire or move on. Because the program definitely has the teacher's mark on it, the replacement has a considerable task of adjusting. Often an entire curriculum must be revised and a program's emphasis shifted. In some colleges, where one or two faculty members have marked a program for a number of years, their departure can signal the end of the department unless the right person is hired and the right transition is made. This does not mean that a clone must be found, but it does mean that the new person must be able to accept the old ways which will be quite ingrained. Any changes may be perceived as radical.

Where do we find new teachers for small colleges? This is a problem. Graduate schools do not prepare their students as generalists--able to teach in nearly every area of the discipline--nor do graduate schools encourage students to consider small college teaching. The mentoring system encourages students to consider their specialties, just as PhD programs encourage them to focus on research rather than teaching. Small colleges positions are seen as stepping stones to jobs at larger institutions not as ends in themselves. Yet teaching at a small college demands a commitment to teaching in that environment. Additionally, graduate students, who have been working within a department with a strong focus

on the communication discipline, are often unprepared for the cross-disciplinary focus of many liberal arts institutions, as well as for the many demands the institution will place on them in addition to their teaching. The research skills and the research projects, in which they have invested themselves and their interest for the past several years, become irrelevant as they face the task of teaching a broad range of subject areas instead. The focus on the undergraduate student and the emphasis on teaching will be new to new faculty. The lack of colleagues who share their background may make them feel isolated. If they did not attend a small college as undergraduates their adjustment to the campus and the system may be more difficult.

Furthermore, many small colleges are not in metropolitan areas so employment of spouses may become an issue. With two professionals in the family, as if often the case, rural areas and small towns cannot be considered by many graduate students as places of possible employment. For others, they do not become places of lasting employment because of financial considerations or because of desires of either or both spouses to advance both careers.

With a difficulty in hiring new faculty members, a program itself is more vulnerable to being cut. The replacement of a faculty member in a department of even six or seven is less traumatic than the replacement in a department of one or two. With current economic pressures, new people may come in to newly-created non-tenure track positions. The impermanence affects both the person and the program: if the person fits in well, the trauma is great at departure time, and if the person responds to the temporary nature of the position, the full-time commitment that the program requires will not be present. While larger institutions as well as small ones are facing the problems of new non-tenure track positions, one in a faculty of three is different from one in a faculty of six, or twenty-six.

Another factor about teaching at a small college is that small college teachers must be generalists. The area of PhD research may constitute only a small part of the teaching load. In a small college department, a person may be asked to teach interpersonal and small group communication, public speaking, argumentation and persuasion, language behavior, communication theory, communication responsibility, oral interpretation, rhetorical criticism, and organizational communication. The person may also have to coach forensics, direct the readers theatre program and coach debate as well. If a new course is introduced, that person may have to teach it. The emphasis must be on breadth of preparation, with enough depth to keep the teacher and the classes respectable.

At conventions most of the programs will not fit the needs of small college faculty. What is gained is the exchange of ideas, materials, textbooks, and program suggestions with faculty in like situations.

A teacher in a small college does more than teach, however. They do research despite an emphasis on teaching. Faculty development is an important consideration and, if suitable replacements can be found, sabbatical leaves are encouraged. The colleges often do not have summer sessions so summers provide a time to attend summer school, workshops, or to do research and writing. Scholarship enriches the teaching and the teaching provides a focus for the scholarship.

As teachers are in greater and greater supply, and this will continue, a terminal degree is as essential at small colleges as it is at larger institutions. For tenure promotion, professional development is being emphasized. This is coming to mean publications of some type, not necessarily books, but at least articles, just as convention papers now are seen to be a mark of professional growth. Obtaining grants, attending NEH or NSF seminars, doing faculty recitals, and exhibiting artistic work are becoming more and more emphasized. In ways this is good, for it provides a focus for development as teacher/scholars and gets the faculty into contexts where it can exchange ideas with colleagues. Professionalism adds another pressure to faculty lives, as well as a new dimension to the tug of war for time that exists between classrooms, directing co-curricular activites, and maintaing a personal life--making it a four-way tug.

Informal Channels

Another characteristic that distinguishes the small college is the use of informal channels.

In the small college communication channels are informal and most contacts personal. All the faculty know each other; they know the deans and the president. As a result it is possible to telephone or visit anyone to ask a question or make a request. At times this is a help, but it also can be a problem since it can be difficult to separate personal and professional relationships. In addition, the maintainence of these informal ties is very time consuming. Furthermore, in a small department there is no anonymity. The faculty knows the students formally and informally and the students know the faculty. This familiarity can lead to problems in the area of evaluations. Evaluation can be difficult in any context, but among those not trained as administrators (including most academics) and among those who often are friends, the problem increases. This is true despite all the communication theory about the need for and value of feedback. With a department and an institution committed to the growth and development of all its personnel, evaluations need not be threatening--within a department and an institution facing economic uncertainties, potential or actual declining enrollments, competition for salary dollars and faculty slots, evaluation becomes highly threatening. Tenure, promotions, merit pay--these easily get tangled up with friendships and self-interest and personal dislikes and personal integrity. With the informality of the channels of communication and the small town nature of the campus there is considerable potential for tension.

Institutional Loyalty

The last area is that of loyalty to institutions. Faculty feel the loyalty and know that the loyalty is required. The small college sees itself as a community and it, in

many ways, responds as a community.

Such loyalty is time-consuming. Consider faculty governance. At most institutions all faculty are expected to attend faculty meetings. At these meetings, the faculty takes an active role in developing educational policies, setting and maintaining academic standards, encouraging faculty development, and participating in evaluations and in promotion and tenure decisions. There usually are four committees on which service is expected and which represent each of these areas of emphasis.

Through service and meetings, the faculty sees itself more as a faculty and less as members of individual departments. This will benefit the college, especially a liberal arts college. It may have costs as well. The institution expects loyalty to itself and to the teaching profession; if this conflicts with loyalty to a discipline or with personal needs, problems may result. Financial demands and demands for time are two parts of institutional loyalty. The faculty is expected to sacrifice personally and professionally for the greater good of the institution, other departments, and the students. As part of a community, individuals, close to other faculty and to the students, both physically and psychologically, will experience stress. Sacrifice also has the potential, however, to generate a particular understanding.

Multiple Responsibility

Persons who choose to teach at a small college must be prepared to be more than teachers. Advising, directing co-curricular activities, serving on college committees, evaluating colleagues for tenure and promotion, recruiting new majors, serving on faculty search committees, selecting library resources, developing the curriculum, doing promotional brochures for the department or the theatre season, meeting with perspective freshmen, talking with the alumni and with parents, the list goes on and on, are all part of the job. In a larger department each of these tasks might be delegated to several people and, thus, divide the performing of many administrative, departmental, and housekeeping details among a larger group of faculty members. In a department of two or three people, each person is involved in a great number of different tasks, of differing degrees of relationship to the business of teaching classes, but all a part of the day-to-day activities of the department. Someone needs to see that the little jobs get done, and at a small college that someone usually is the faculty member.

Conclusion

In a small college, the faculty is first of all teachers but it also performs multiple roles and has multiple responsibilities. For a teacher at an institution of any size, there are only twenty-four hours in each day. Everyone manages to fill the time and to do their jobs. But for the teacher at the small college there seems to be a greater variety of jobs. Breadth characterizes the scope of departmental responsibilities just as it characterizes the scope of teaching responsibilities. The channels of communication on campus are informal. The faculty live and work in close physical proximity to collegaues in other departments. Interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary ties may be actively encouraged. Yet the faculty can feel isolated professionally from colleagues at other institutions and from professional associations.

While these elements may exist at a large institutions, their presence characterizes the small college and it is within this context that the small college administrator must operate.

ADMINISTRATIVE STYLE AND THE SMALL COLLEGE CONTEXT

Joseph W. MacDoniels

Administrators in a small college departments of communication often have the feeling that their lot is somehow different from that of colleagues in larger institutions or in comparable positions in business or in government. Furthermore, many of them have the feeling that success depends on behaviors and skills as administrators which must be uniquely suited to the small college situation. In short, they believe that their context demands a proper administrative style.

Three issues are raised by the topic of this paper: What is meant by administration? What is the nature of the small college context? And what use can be made of the concept of style in administration or leadership?

Issues of Amini tration

In American society today there are three competing concepts which are, more often than not, used interchangeably: administration, management, and leadership. From an administrative perspective it seems that in society in general and in colleges in particular administration is the superordinate term under which is found the ideas of management, usually treated as a skill, and leadership, usually considered an inherent quality. It also seems that management is the more highly regarded quality of these two.

College administration currently is influenced by an administrative/management way of thinking which poses a unique problem for people in small colleges. Let us consider some characteristics of this administrative/management point of view. Administration and management as they are conducted seem more concerned with situations than with dynamic processes, the theories presented notwithstanding. Administration and management are of things rather than of people and the emphasis is on philosophy, structure, and practice rather than on the dynamics of processes. In this context, leadership is an overlooked concept which only now is showing signs of shaking off the dust of disuse and neglect.

Higher education has been captivated by the administrative/management notion to the extent that recently popular graduate programs of Higher Education Administration have become a legitimate track to educational administrative positions. People want to see the administrative/managerial teeth of candidates for deanships and vice presidencies--budget control, personnel practices, administrative philosophy, etc.

This point of view brings with it a number of terms and ideas created or found in business--bottom line, product, cost effective, etc. For example, Doane College in Crete, Nebraska, now guarantees its teacher education graduates, referring to them as a product. Better marketing is the priority emphasis for many colleges--particularly the small college which is so vulnerable to hard times and shifts in the student pool or government policies.

There is a quality of squeaky clean efficiency in the administrative/managerial way of things and, admittedly, the results found often are quite favorable. At the center, however, is a neo-scientific management school of thought which reduces people to roles, skills, or elements to be planned for and utilized. The complex process of the college is seen as a series of circumstances or conditions (often crises) to be analyzed and capitalized upon quickly and efficiently.

Administration/Management And The Small College Context

For communication faculty in the small college context this administrative/managerial approach clashes with nature--it even makes administrators a bit schizophrenic! The problem is that this rather impersonal, object oriented, administrative concept is antithetical to the communication discipline, its situation and its tradition. As communication students, one looks at the process of administration with a focus on the most human of all elements: interaction between people. Communication people believe that what is said either in words or in gestures is to be seen as meaningful and important. Therefore, there is a tendency to be somewhat microscopic in attention to the individual, to interaction, and to the implications of an event. This places communication administrators in essential conflict with their colleagues or college officers who are concerned with bigger pictures, long term implications, and the quality of the business sense which a particular action or decision represents. It is not that there is necessarily disagreement with their conclusions, rather it often is a case of not accepting their values.

The small quality of our context also

creates problems with the administrative/managerial method of administration. Small college administrators are use to the idea that because they are small, they have the potential of being able to understand others more clearly or of taking the time to work things out. They are not plagued by the problem of scale which makes such potential as impossible to imagine as it has become at the universites. The result is a resistance to any administrative philosophy which practices (whether or not it advocates) withholding of information, strategic approaches to personnel issues, rulebound procedures, etc. It could even be said that, by today's definitions, the small college context cannot be managed or administered effectively.

The third problem encountered with contemporary management or administrative theories and practice derives from tradition. As representatives of small liberal arts colleges, communication administrators do not see themselves as employees but as members of a faculty. They define their roots in the ancient academy and regard administration and administrators as the servants of scholarship and teaching. They hold as self evident such ideas as administrators come and administrators go but the faculty is always there. Indeed, in the small college context there are more reasons to see life in these ways. Because the colleges are small and because the faculty often is underpaid, tenure has been appreciated by boards and administrators (at least until a buyers market developes--another administrative/managerial idea). Because there are fifty to one hundred and fifty faculty members in the average small college, faculty members know each other better, understand each other more fully, disagree with and defend each other with greater unity than does the faculty of a larger institution. Because of tradition and the nature of small colleges, faculty resist being managed as things or administered in a particular style. They expect to be dealt with as individuals who see themselves as self-employed professionals residing in the collegial community.

The Problem of Departmental Administration

It is in the character of current administrative/managerial philosophy that managerial responsibilities are to be delegated. It also is the nature of small colleges that the resources and often the alternatives for action are limited at the departmental level to which this delegation occurs. The result is that small departments expend considerable energy doing management type activities with relatively little resource to manage and virtually no potential for significant impact. This is not to say that chairs cannot and do not do important things in their institutions at departmental level; but any accomplishments reported are not necessarily the result of the managerial model under which the chair often operates. Furthermore, because the colleges are small, chairs seldom find responsibilities delegated to the departmental level before action can be taken. Chairs do a lot of administration and management but have no real power.

The small college department is not best understood in terms of contemporary administrative practice or managerial philosophy. While chairs may recruit faculty, they do not hire; chairs may request funds but they do not allocate expenditures; chairs may recommend increments in salary or advocate promotion but they do not set salaries or grant promotions. Chairs may design facilities or describe equipment needs within a program but those who raise the funds or approve the funding are located elsewhere in the college. For some chairs there are not enough people in a program to warrant calling a departmental meeting!

Re-Emergence of Leadership

It is possible, however, to take heart at a new awakening of the concept of leadership. At this time one can see leadership as having been subsumed by the modern concepts of management and administration, leaving it without potency. In these views, the idea that leadership involves a dynamic interactive process between the leaders and the led is overlooked--although often stated--in favor of a conception of leadership which includes putting conditions into place which would result in desired outcomes, i.e. management. In recent years James MacGregor Burns has differentiated between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. The former is described as a *quid pro quo* in which the transaction between the leader and the led is an even exchange, votes for jobs, for example. Transformational leadership suggests that the dynamic between leaders and the led is that leaders awaken in themselves and in those led higher order values and aspirations which result in a transformation of the whole situation. Transformational leadership includes all the democratic ideals of participation and choice while making legitimate strong assertive action on the part of individuals who would have people join together to reorder their situation at a higher level. This renewed attention to the concept of leadership is especially important to people in the small college context. While anxiety about survival may cause chairs to accept a button-down-collar, MBA-type educational administration in the short term, few of them fail to see that the ultimate existence is determined by leadership which transforms an institution into one of strong direction, purpose, and meaning.

Administrative Style In The Small College Context

The idea of style in administration or leadership was highlighted with the studies or Lippitt and White in which the relative effectiveness of autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire styles was studied and debated. The late 50's and early 60's directed administrative focus on democratic leadership style, on group centered leadership, and on non-directive leadership even to the point of discussing leaderless groups. In the 1960's, the particular behaviors which aided the group were the focus, and functional concepts of leadership took over. Style was out of favor, indeed, leadership itself fell out of favor. In the late 60's, style took the form of managerial grid positions and became utilized in leadership theory as a variable whose

effectiveness was contingent upon certain circumstances. Fiedler and Chemers identify leader-member relations, task structure, and position power as the contextual factors which determine the effectiveness of particular leadership styles. Under this contingency theory of leadership, leadership style is determined by the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale which identifies persons as more relationship motivated or more task motivated. Leader effectiveness is based on the assumption that, under certain conditions, relationship motivated leaders will be more effective while under other conditions, task motivated leaders will be more effective.

It should be noted that leadership studies almost always end up with two primary factors which, under various labels, reflect a structuring or task dimension and a consideration or relationship dimension. Under Fiedler's contingency model, the context in which high relationship motivated leaders perform best is one in which leader-member relations are good, the task is relatively unstructured, and the leader's position power is weak. From an administrative perspective these conditions--good relationship between colleagues, generally unstructured task and little or no position power for the departmental chair--are exactly what are encountered in the small college situation. Task motivated leaders are found to be more effective in situations where leader-member relations are poor, the task is unstructured, and the leader's position power is weak. This combination also exists in small college contexts, although experience suggests that such a situation cannot be maintained for long. The most important condition which must exist if high task motivated leaders are to be most effective is that there must be a highly structured task, yet it has been argued that in small colleges there is little real managerial work to be performed and the focus of the effort is on the highly subjective, unstructured processes of scholarship, teaching, planning curriculum, working with students on an individual basis, etc. In larger institutions such factors as budget planning, committee responsibilities, publication records, multiple-section course administration, etc., can serve as the basis for a higher degree of task structure.

Thus one can conclude that for the small college department the first requirement of style is that it be relationship motivated.

Interpersonal Dynamics

It has been suggested by Haythorne, *et al.*, that the personality of members plays an important part in determining the quality of leader-member relations. Haythorne also found that people respond more favorably to leaders who are more like themselves in personality. Thus, we see effectiveness in the small college context as dependent on the degree of interpersonal compatibility which exists.

In considering compatibility William Shutz provides an important distinction when he indicates that works-well-with is not the same as liking. Thus, in considering the interpersonal dynamics of the small college context one must look to factors which allow administrators to understand and anticipate the actions of others most effectively.

Leadership style becomes a matter of creating and managing effective interpersonal relationships over the long course. The human relations idea of team building is closer to what is required in colleges than the current idea of management development. What is needed is for chairs to focus their organizational development efforts on methods for understanding themselves and their colleagues better. They need to direct their efforts toward understanding and accepting differences. Toward this end, one can find considerable utility in a Jungian-based theory developed by Isabel Briggs Myers. This measure and model for personality called the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory derives from the Jungian concept of preference for particular ways of dealing with the external world of people and things and the internal world of concepts and ideas. It suggests that two alternative ways of perceiving join with two alternative ways of coming to conclusions, or judging, to form the basis of personality type and behavior in particular situations. The theory suggests that each person develops preferred ways of perceiving, either sensing (S) or intuition (N) and preferred ways of coming to conclusions, either feeling (F) or thinking (T). Furthermore, one of these preferences becomes dominant indicating whether or not one should deal with the external world of people and things through a perceiving process (P) or through a judging process (J). It is further suggested that some people prefer to direct the majority of their energies to the external world of people and things, extraversion (E), while others would rather expend their energies in the internal world of concepts and ideas, Introversion (I). These four sets of alternative preferences result in sixteen different types of personalities. While Jung suggests that all people possess ability in all eight areas, a choice of any commitment to particular alternatives will explain how one sees and acts in relationship to others.

Although it is difficult to resist explaining the principles and concepts of Myers-Briggs theory further, it is not necessary to do so to make the point. One needs to go beyond merely accepting that people are different. One needs to find some system to understand that differences can be understood and accounted for. One needs to find a way to focus attention on the nature and effect of the difference rather than the more natural tendency to try to determine who is wrong when difference is encountered. Thus, if chairs wish to require a basic relationship oriented style in a small college administration, then they must find ways to develop an appreciation for and understanding of the dynamics of the relationships which occur within a department or within a college. Management of interpersonal compability is the administrative objective which is essential in the small college context. Unfortunately, small colleges often seek to hire people who are clones in order to promote compatibility. For many chairs this effort often is argued for in terms related to a church-related tradition. In striving to be more homogenous, administrators pay a great price and sell a great potential. Administrators should have greater confidence in

their ability to have differences serve as the basis for transformation to higher levels of values and ideals. Doing so will require administrators to find better ways to understand, acknowledge, and work effectively across differences. It will require from everyone, a commitment to an administrative style appropriate to the small college context--an informed and knowledgeable relationship orientation with a commitment to leadership.

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DEPARTMENTAL ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE SMALL COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT: ANALYSIS AND EXTENSION

James E. Roever

In responding to these papers on small college administration, one can ask the question: Just how do small college administrators and their duties differ from those in larger colleges and universities? Or, to put it more directly to small college administrators: Why do you perceive your roles as different from the roles of those in larger college and universities?

Being a methodologist, I want to begin with some operational definitions. I have wondered how to define a small college and/or a small department. In her introduction to *Innovative Programs at the Small College: Doing What We do Best*, a collection of papers from the 1982 SCA Convention, Bonnie Buzza reports that there was agreement that five or fewer faculty members would define a small department.[1] Allan Tucker, in his book *Chairing the Academic Department: Leadership Among Peers*, defines a *'small' department as one that has up to nine full-time faculty members, including the chairperson.*[2] Buzza also reported that no definition really proved satisfactory to the SCA Small College Committee so that it eventually concluded, "If you feel small, you are small." These definitions help a little, but not a lot.

In addition, two-year institutions should not be included as part of the small college group Some of the two-year institutions are large and some of them are small; however, since they are unique in their own ways, let us say that we are talking about characteristics of administration unique to the small departments (not more than nine persons), in the small liberal arts college of probably 2000 students or less, with a total faculty of anywhere from fifty to 100.

Next, I was prompted to ask: What are the characteristics of administrators that one wants to use for comparison? If we are to make a comparison, we need a criteria. I searched for a model. Although there are others, the one I selected is presented by Allan Tucker. In Chapter 1 of *Chairing the Academic Department*, Tucker summarizes "The Chairperson's Roles, Powers, and Responsibilities." His general categories are department governance, instruction, faculty affairs, external communication, budget and resources, office management, and professional development.[3] He cites fifty-four different duties facing a department chairperson under these eight main categories.

Tucker say that *the astonishing variety of tasks and duties that face the department chairperson* are:

Department governance

Conduct department meetings
Establish department committees
Use committees effectively
Develop long-range department programs, plans, and goals
Determine what services the department should provide to the university, community, and state
Implement long-range department programs, plans, goals, and policies
Prepare the department for accreditation and evaluation
Serve as an advocate for the department
Monitor library acquisitions
Delegate some department administrative responsibilities to individuals and committees
Encourage faculty members to communicate ideas for improving the department

Instruction

Schedule classes
Supervise off-campus programs
Monitor dissertations, prospectuses, and programs of study for graduate students
Supervise, schedule, monitor, and grade department examinations
Update department curriculum, courses, and programs

Faculty affairs

Recruit and select faculty members
Assign faculty responsibilities, such as teaching, research, committee work, and so forth
Monitor faculty service contributions
Evaluate faculty performance
Initiate promotion and tenure recommendations
Participate in grievance hearings
Make merit recommendations
Deal with unsatisfactory faculty and staff performance
Initiate termination of a faculty member
Keep faculty members informed of department, college, and institutional plans, activities, and expectations
Maintain morale
Reduce, resolve, and prevent conflict among faculty members
Encourage faculty participation

Student affairs

Recruit and select students
Advise and counsel students
Work with student government

External communication

Communication department needs to the dean and interact with upper-level administrators
Improve and maintain the department's image and reputation
Coordinate activities with outside groups
Process department correspondence and requests for information
Complete forms and surveys
Initiate and maintain liaison with external agencies and institutions

Budget and resources
Encourage faculty members to submit proposals for contracts and grants to government agencies and private foundations
Prepare and propose department budgets
Seek outside funding
Administer the department budget
Set priorities for use of travel funds
Prepare annual reports
Office management
Manage department facilities and equipment, including maintenance and control of inventory
Monitor building security and maintenance
Supervise and evaluate the clerical and technical staff in the department
Maintain essential department records, including student records
Professional development
Foster the development of each faculty member's special talents and interests
Foster good teaching in the department
Stimulate faculty research and publication
Promote affirmative action
Encourage faculty members to participate in regional and national professional meetings
Represent the department at meetings of learned and professional societies[4]

Using Tucker's list of tasks and duties of chairpersons, a comparison of administrative responsibilities, powers, and roles would deal with these fifty-four items. One may wonder how this fits into the context of the papers being reviewed. I think the papers are case studies of the experiences of each individual that allows us to begin, and I say only begin, to analyze the roles, powers, and responsibilities of administrators. Let me comment on each of the papers and then come back to suggest some things that need to be done if we we really to answer the questions involved in assessing the role differences of administrators in large and small institutions.

Joseph MacDoniels, in "Administrative Style and the Small College Context," develops some issues about the proper role of administrators that cut across several of Tucker's categories and begin to shed some light on the unique characteristics of small college administrators.

First, let me disagree with several of his premises since they are presented as universals and I think that they should be qualified as only possibilities. I do not think that management, in the pejorative sense that he uses it, has taken over and precluded leadership, his positive term, in all cases. Neither do I think that the graduates of Higher Education Administration programs, the button-down-collar, MBA type persons, are predominant; rather, those types often are rejected for administrative positions in favor of the person who has risen through the faculty and administrative ranks. Additionally, I think that it is not inconsistent for administrators to exhibit management behaviors and leadership behaviors; in fact, the best administrator is probably the one who does both of those things well. Having cited these differences that I have with his premises, let me move on to indicate that I think he is getting at some of possible characteristics of small-college administrators that may be useful for this analysis.

His comments lead to the hypothesis that in small colleges administrators may have less complexity of management and shift more towards interpersonal behaviors with a broader constituency in order to accomplish things. In the large college, the chain of command may be from the person in the department, to the chair, to the dean, to the vice president, to the president, with various lateral consultations in between. It may be that in the small department in the small college, there is a requirement of more interaction across department lines to get things done and more informal communication with other administrators, such as with a person with the shared role of vice president and dean of faculty or even directly with the President. That may require a style difference often more personal than in a large university.

MacDoniels' comments also suggest that it may be that the level of final authority on some issues, considered handled at the department or college level at some universities, may be decided and implemented at the vice presidential or presidential level in the small college. If that is the case, then the role of the chair may be more the role of one who recommends and advises than one who makes decisions and implements them immediately.

Finally, the suggestion comes out that perhaps the administrator, and teacher, in the small college works more on a one-to-one basis with students, majors, and faculty peers. He or she perhaps experiences fewer of the examples of siolation and myopia possible in larger institutions which may have little communication across department and/or college lines or, for that matter, among colleagues within a given department. Indeed, some departments in a large university will be as large as the entire faculty in a small college.

In addition to corroborating several of the points made by MacDoniels, the paper by Bonnie Buzza on "The Small College Administrative Environment" brings out several additional issues.

Buzza suggests that one characteristic of the small college administrator is that he or she probably teaches not only more courses but a broader array of courses than the administrator in the large college. The courses may be taught less frequently, often rotated, and the person also will be involved in numerous extra-curricular activities. Let us remember, though, that these are teaching responsibilities and not administrative responsibilities; I will return to this point later. The small college administrator probably has to juggle administrative duties among the teaching and committee duties. On the other hand, if we were to examine the activities of the administrator of the large department, with a lower teaching load, we might find more activities such as research, thesis supervision, recruitment of faculty, etc., and, thus, just as heavy a work responsibility.

The small college administrator may have to work in a department that is combined with areas such as English and theatre. That may be less the case in larger colleges and universities.

Buzza suggests that the small college program may be more vulnerable to being cut since one or two persons leaving can wipe out an existing department, or at least destroy program continuity in the department. This could present additional pressure for the administrator.

Many of her experiences corroborate the notion of informal channels of communication presented by MacDoniels.

If one combines the ideas presented in these papers, it is possible to fill in a few of the knowledge gaps, using the Tucker outline, about administration in small colleges as compared to larger institutions. But there still are many gaps. If those interested in these issues want to continue this line of inquiry it would seem that they should compare administrators in various sized departments in colleges and universities using the same criteria. They may find that some things, such as publication expectations, do not occur at small colleges and that some things, such as multiple-area departments, do not occur as often at large institutions. They could first determine which of the fifty-four areas, for example, apply to which sized schools. Then one could determine the nature of the roles, powers, and responsibilities as they apply in the various settings. Only then will we be able to answer the question: How do small college administrators and their duties differ from those in larger colleges and universities?

And if that question is answered, then there are more pragmatic questions that follow. Examples are: What types of persons are best qualified or equipped for those positions? What can be done to assist administrators to develop their skills in certain areas? Should we develop programs, at conventions or in training workshops, specifically for certain groups of administrators since they have different needs? Nevertheless, the first question, which these papers begin to get at, is whether there are real differences in the first place.

Before concluding, let me digress for one moment. As I read these papers and thought about the topic of the departmental size, I was reminded of a statement made by Tucker when he operationally defined that term. He said: *Departments with four or fewer members are not really departments but programs that have achieved department status because of their excellence or because of tradition, sentiment, nostalgia, or tolerance on the part of the central administration.*[5] When one places that definition along side many of the comments in the papers in which the speakers have often described the pressures of their positions because of teaching responsibilities, committee responsibilities, and the like, it may just be that department is not the proper unit of analysis and that department administrators really are department members of a large unit chaired by a dean or vice president or president; we may need to reexamine the units of analysis.

Coming back to the original thrust of these papers, let me suggest that given the types of studies that could be done using Tucker's fifty-four criteria, or another model, we could do even more than we do to assist in the training of chairpersons. For as Allan Tucker also has said, *The chairperson's job, obviously, is difficult and complex. A brilliant university or college administration with inept chairpersons cannot survive; an inept administration, with the help of a group of brilliant chairpersons, usually can.*[6]

Endnotes

[1]Bonnie Buzza, editor, *Innovative Programs at the Small College--Doing What We do Best* (Ripon: Ripon College Press, 1983), p. ii.

[2]Allan Tucker, *Chairing the Academic Department: Leadership Among Peers* (Washington, DC: American Council on Education, 1981), p. 28.

[3]*Ibid*, pp. 2-4.

[4]*Ibid*,

[5]*Ibid*, p. 28.

[6]*Ibid*, p. 4.

CONCERNS, QUESTIONS, AND CHANGES IN SMALL COLLEGES

Dale M. Jackson

When asked what the major concerns of faculty are, the response of a colleague from another college was rather blunt: "Money and job security; what else is there?" These are certainly common concerns, but there are many others. In spite of the broad experiential base shared by all people in higher education, life at small liberal arts colleges is not quite the same as life at larger institutions. The things faculty worry about, the questions they ask, and the changes that are occurring are a little different.

Some colleges were said to have a more value-sensitive, more historically-oriented perspective. Research is valued . . . *more for its contribution to creating new insights into the nature of reality than for the elegance of its design and statistical procedures.*[1] There is more inclination to define the college as a teaching institution where undergraduate teaching is valued and rewarded.[2] Small departments within small colleges might be more capable of relating the discipline to vocational training since they lack the mind set of large graduate departments which link education to teaching.[3] Finally, a possibly less apparent difference is the absence of graduate students as middle-level scholars. The impact of this variable is hard to assess. Beginning courses may often be taught by senior professors which can be to the students' advantage, but the academic distance between undergraduate freshmen and senior professors also can be frustrating for both.

There are many other real or imagined differences. The view of small-college life that follows focuses upon three questions of common interest to people in the communication arts and sciences discipline:

1. What are the major concerns of faculty in a small liberal arts college?
2. What are the major concerns of administrators in a small liberal arts college? and
3. What significant curricular changes are foreseen for the rest of this decade?

The answers to each question represent the point of view of one chair of a small communication arts department at a Midwestern liberal arts college.

Faculty Concerns

Along with colleagues from other types of institutions, faculty members from small liberal arts colleges are concerned about salaries, tenure, and promotion. Salaries are generally lower than at larger state institutions.[4] In many households both spouses are employed. Faculty trying to raise a family on one income have very real struggles. Those who endure the economic hardships generally feel that there are other compensating job satisfactions: close relationships with colleagues, direct involvement in the personal growth of students, and the more relaxed pace of a small campus and possibly a small town.

At Taylor University, in Indiana, tenure and promotion are still concerns, but the anxieties have been reduced by policies designed to prevent adversary relationships between faculty and administrators. The focus is upon institutional support for faculty growth and development. A process for the growth of tenured people also has been endorsed by the faculty, administration, and Board of Trustees.

Most faculty at small colleges seem to be concerned with the quality of their teaching. They have chosen undergraduate teaching for a wide variety of reasons, but a sense of mission is not uncommon. Much of the time and energy devoted to professional growth is given to a search for ways to improve teaching. With lower teacher-student ratios, students develop different expectations; they make more demands; and faculty members' professional and personal lives are more visible. On a small campus good teachers stand out. So do poor ones, but for most, good teaching is highly valued and is a prime concern.

Many liberal arts faculty members worry about the intrusion of growing vocational and career pressures. The continuum of opinions includes pragmatists at one extreme, who are willing to move in whatever directions the student market pushes, and purists at the other extreme who believe the word vocation has no place on a liberal arts campus. Most faculty fall somewhere in the middle, maintaining a basic belief that a liberal education is still the best preparation for life and work, willing to accept some curricular changes to accommodate career interests, and capable of helping students turn liberal studies into some profession or livelihood. However, the concern over vocational dominance has prompted the imposition of enrollment limits on some business and technical programs. Where strong liberal arts traditions are valued, there are signs of lines drawn--no more than a certain percentage of the student body will be accepted in business and technical majors, for example.

Faculty people at small colleges frequently feel overworked. That may be universal in education, but small college faculties face different demands. They cannot become too specialized. They are forced to teach courses outside their primary interests and training which requires a sizeable time investment in new preparation. Excessive committee work is another concern. And, because of the nature of small campus life, faculty are more likely to become involved in campus events outside the classroom. Overworked and underpaid is a common self-perception.

Administrative Concerns

As might be expected, a primary concern of small-college administrators is institutional survival. There is a strong belief that colleges that can clearly define their mission and can maintain their uniqueness will prosper. New initiatives are being taken to define institutional goals, identify clientele, and to locate the institution's segment of a declining student market. An assumption is that if a college is not moving forward, it probably will not survive. A related concern is the percentage of the operating budget that is dependent upon student fees. An institution is very vulnerable in a shifting student market when a high percentage of operational funds come from student tuition and fees.

Department chairs worry about the number of majors, since resources are often allocated on the basis of enrollment statistics. There also is the possibility that in a crunch some departments will be phased out because their existence can no longer be justified. For the department chair, there may be the added frustration of having a clear vision for change with no freedom to accomplish it. Limited resources prevent hiring new people and tenured faculty may refuse to explore new areas.

The struggle for speech communication chairpersons is not just departmental strength and autonomy. At times the integrity of the discipline is challenged and must be defended as separate and distinct from English, psychology, business, sociology, etc. One chair reported recently that he was thinking of dropping a communication text written by a psychologist because the psychology department might use its use as evidence that communication is not a viable academic discipline.

There are, of course, many other budget-related concerns. Competition for limited resources is sometimes very intense. Erratic and irrational state legislatures are not a problem but private donors can be just as unpredictable. A million dollars in equipment requests may be in hand for a half million discretionary budget dollars. Administrators worry about how to set priorities among competing needs. They are concerned about who will pay for the maintenance of equipment purchased. And, when things seem to be going too smoothly, they worry about who might file a lawsuit against the institution.

Curricular Changes

Recent public speaking texts often cite studies of what people fear[5] so now speech faculty can joke with their students that for most people the fear of talking in front of a group is ranked well ahead of the fear of dying. In the final analysis, however, the profession has little of substance to offer anxious students.

This profession, along with other non-technical disciplines, is moving into an age of technology. In *Megatrends*, Naisbitt claims that society is on the threshold of a mammoth communication revolution in which the *combined technologies of telephone, computer, and television have merged into an integrated information and communication system. . . .*[6] Probably no one fully understands the implications of that. Educators may not even know what questions to ask to find the answers.

The renewed concern in education for skills acquisition has forced the speech profession to look again at its listening research; when it does, it will find relatively little has been done since Ralph Nichols' studies of the late 1950's.[7]

Recent studies of life stages, male-female differences, left brain-right brain, androgyny and other sex-related topics have been of interest, but no one has fully explored cross-sexual communication. That is just beginning.

High school and college speech teachers who look to the professional journals for research data supporting teaching strategies will be disappointed.

In the past five years some directions have been set for the profession which will probably continue through this decade. The enrollment growth that many departments are enjoying has come in part because of an attempt to accommodate students' demands for career preparation. Departments have shifted some resouces to expand radio, television, journalism, public relations, and business communication offerings. For those at liberal arts colleges, career emphases will not come at the expense of liberal studies. The healthy tension between the two will continue, but the basic belief in broad educational goals will not change.

The combined expansion of television technology and the opening of new programming markets should make the job search a promising one for mass communication graduates. The apparent trend toward more specialized programming for specific television audiences will require more trained personnel.

There are at least two parts of the curriculum where the concern for technology might be reflected. Business communication instructors will be forced to talk about the impact of the information age upon human communication and relationships, while cross-cultural communication people will have to look at the problems and benefits of instant global communication.

The revival of interest in public speaking will probably continue, fed by the broader concern at all levels of education for basic skill development. A thorough review and revision of general education requirements at Taylor University recently resulted in the development of a public speaking requirement. Before graduation, students also must take two courses that include oral communication assignments. Faculty in other departments who want to give courses with an oral component are required to attend workshops conducted by the communication arts department

to learn about the preparation and evaluation of oral communication assignments.

At large universities, there appears to be a trend to move away from interdepartmental cooperation. At small colleges there probably is more opportunity for both formal and informal exchange between disciplines, but no noticeable increase in cooperative efforts. Concern for weakening the discipline by depending too heavily upon the research from other areas and the drive to protect territory get in the way.

Finally there seems to be a renewed interest in rhetoric. As society continues to become more complex, there may be a growing need for conceptual structures that can make sense of it. Expanding technology is increasing the distance between under-developed, developing, and developed nations. The gap between the haves and the have-nots is widening. Some communication bridge builders will be needed and the communication profession is the best equipped to train them.

In summary, one can be optimistic about the rest of this decade. The profession is witnessing a growing interest in human communication. There are problems, but solutions are appearing. Not everything needed to be known is known, but the information base is growing rapidly. In most instances the communication arts curricula is responding to vacational concerns, but the commitment to liberal arts education is still solid.

How are things in small college land? The answer appears to be good.

Endnotes

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AN EXPLORATION OF SOME PROBLEMS CONFRONTING SPEECH COMMUNICATION FACULTY

Sandra Manheimer

Each academic community faces problems which arise from its uniqueness as a culture and the sociology which differentiates it from other cultures. Yet a particular characteristic of one culture may be found in other cultures as well, and those common characteristics often define the problems shared by such communities. As one defining characteristic, institutional size provides a means for categorizing academic communities so that problems (and possible solutions to those problems) common to institutions of a particular size might be better understood.

This paper examines three problem areas likely to face speech communication faculty within academic communities as a result of resource limitations imposed by the smallness of the institution: (1) adequately staffing the basic speech course; (2) effectively teaching certain upper-level speech communication courses; and (3) administering a forensic program. The discussion explores the nature of each problem area and suggests possible solutions that overcome limitations of institutional size.

Adequately Staffing a Basic Speech Course Program

Small institutions certainly do not hold a monopoly on course staffing problems, but small size does preclude some of the possible solutions available in larger departments and institutions. Many smaller departments are deprived of a common basic course staffing resource available to larger graduate institutions: the graduate teaching assistant. Therefore, alternative ways to provide instruction to the students must be explored. Possibilities include adoption of alternative formats of instruction that will reduce staffing needs and the discovery of other qualified personnel to serve as basic course instructors.

As financial limitations have prompted institutional administrators to seek ways of providing more cost-effective instruction, many small college speech communication departments are being forced to increase student-teacher ratios. Lectures classes can assimilate additional students with relatively little loss in effectiveness. However, increases in size have forced instructors of courses which involve individual student performances to explore alternative formats in order to accommodate more students without compromising the quality of instruction. Many basic communication arts courses utilize a mass lecture for dissemination of theory and research, and the small class for discussion of, and practice in, application and development of performance skills. Some departments video tape the lecture and then make the tape available to students at the library. Other departments have incorporated computer-assisted, self-instruction components into the basic course. The University of Nebraska redesigned its basic course to incorporate a personalized system of instruction and the use of undergraduate teaching assistants. William Seiler reported, at a 1982 Midwest Basic Course Directors' Conference, gratifying educational outcomes which resulted from adoption of this approach to instruction.

Rather than adopting alternative course formats, many departments have opted to search for additional personnel to staff the basic course. As noted, at the University of Nebraska, undergraduate students who have completed the basic course receive three credit hours as an internship for serving as instructor assistants. They receive training which enables them to assist the instructor by tutoring, keeping records, and evaluating quizzes, examinations, and speeches. In addition to being a financially attractive alternative to the university (costing only $1.75 per credit hour as compared with the $30.00 per credit hour with a full-time faculty member), the program resulted in increased enrollment in other courses offered by the department and in an increase in majors.

The University of Dayton has used qualified and trained undergraduate communication students as facilitators in the instruction of its basic course for the past four years. Don Morlan, the administrator responsible for their program, states that *with each year we have been more pleased with overall results ...I have yet to receive the first negative comment from any source--faculty, student, or administrator.* As at the University of Nebraska, financial benefits of the University of Dayton's program are impressive: *Actual dollar outlay for the department for each section taught by a facilitator is $250.00. Using part-time faculty as a comparative base we have effected the following dollar savings in each of the four years: 1979-80 - $10,500.00; 1980-81 - $6,200.00: 1981-82 - $6,200.00; 1982-83 - $10,500.00. Four year total - $33,400.00.*

Universities have long recognized the financial savings that accrue from hiring individuals to teach on a part-time basis.

Salaries for part-time instructors generally range from one-fourth to one-half those paid full-time faculty for comparable class loads. And most basic course administrators seem to have little difficulty locating qualified individuals willing to teach part-time. Many high school speech teachers with masters degrees in communication welcome an opportunity to earn additional income, to teach more advanced (and sometimes more highly motivated) students, and to become affiliated with an institution of higher learning. Part-time teaching affords women an opportunity to remain professionally active while rearing children and homemaking.

It should be noted, however, that while the use of part-time instructors helps to alleviate staffing problems, the practice remains controversial and can create problems. Accusations of exploitation can be leveled at departments that rely heavily on part-time instruction. Many accrediting agencies express concern over quality control in departments which rely heavily on part-time instruction. Scheduling classes to fit the commitments of part-time instructors can be difficult, and students complain about the lack of office hours established by part-time instructors.

While these concerns should not force basic course administrators to ignore the possibility of employing part-time faculty, they do suggest the wisdom of exploring alternatives. Within an academic institution, two additional options exist for meeting staffing needs of the basic course, both of which utilize full-time faculty from disciplines other than speech. One option involves the teaching of communication within the context of other courses. At its 1982 national convention, the Speech Communication Association offered a short course which dealt with communication across the curriculum. The short course developers discussed programs which were designed to develop communication skills within courses in all disciplines. The programs built upon a commitment to improve a student's communication skills. The National Endowment for the Humanities supported this concept by providing funding which allowed faculty from any discipline to receive training to prepare them to teach the process of, and to evaluate effectively, the communicative behaviors that would be required from students enrolled in their courses. Although these programs were not conceived to provide an alternative to the offering of a basic communication course, they do suggest the possibility of teaching basic communication within the context of designated courses across an institution's curriculum. Such a program could augment or substitute for the offering of the basic communication course. Communication faculty would train faculty from other disciplines and serve as resource consultants for those faculty and their students.

If communication-across-the-curriculum serves to supplement communication instruction in a basic course, revision of the basic course program might decrease staffing needs. At Bradley University, for example, students majoring in the College of Engineering and Technology take a two-hour basic communication course. Then receive the third hour in one or more of their upper-level engineering courses. Communication faculty work with engineering faculty and students to ensure the quality of the third hour. A faculty member who formerly taught two three-hour sections of the basic course can teach three two-hour sections (or two two-hour sections and work with the engineering program).

In addition to the appeal such a program has for basic course staffing needs, its interdisciplinary nature seems appropriate to the nature of our subject matter. By its design, communication-across-the-curriculum encourages interaction among faculty from various disciplines, placing communication faculty at the center of that interaction.

A program devoted to communication-across-the-curriculum, while attractive conceptually, may be quite difficult to institute. It therefore appears wise to examine another solution which might prove feasible as a means of dealing with staffing needs of a basic course.

While the decrease in student enrollment is felt throughout an institution, some departments experience the decline more than others. Many students are foresaking the study of the humanities for the financial rewards promised by degrees in the sciences and engineering. As a result, at many institutions, instructors of courses in areas such as philosophy and foreign languages are facing empty classrooms. Administrators have pondered the question of what to do with tenured faculty members in departments with few majors. Often the answer is to reassign these faculty members. Spare university faculty should be welcomed if they are willing to retrain and retool to become effective department members. NEH-funded workshops and internally-funded faculty development programs can be used to train faculty from other disciplines to teach communication courses. Acquiring additional full-time faculty in any other way is unlikely given present economic conditions and retrenchment practices in many universities today.

While the suggested solutions to the basic course staffing problem may create new difficulties, in the less than perfect circumstances presently confronting higher education, one must seek relief to a problems in the possible, not the ideal. John Dewey believed that freedom involves the capacity to look at things as if they could be otherwise. By enlarging one's concept of academic community to include all of the resources within reach, and exploring each of the possibilities present within that enlarged community, basic course directors can free themselves of course staffing problems which commonly plague communication faculty in small institutions.

Effectively Teaching Certain Upper-Level Speech Communication Courses

While small classes are often desirable both from the standpoint of increased potential for classroom interaction, and decreased grading duties, some disadvantages also accrue. Smaller classes constitute a potential threat to jobs by decreasing FTEs. More importantly, though, effectiveness in some courses absolutely requires the presence of a minimum number of students. Consider the following examples: it is rather difficult

to teach parliamentary procedure with three or four students; two or three people hardly constituent an audience for advanced public speaking; five to seven is usually cited as the ideal size of a small group, and less than ideal is a group of two to four when that is the total enrollment in a group discussion class. In many of the courses offered to follow a basic communication course, small enrollment becomes a distinct problem. One possible solution to this problem is the active recruiting of more students for upper-level courses. This can be attempted in the basic communication course by stressing the availability of specialized courses. Convincing faculty in other departments (especially those who serve as advisors) of the value of particular courses for their majors can result in increased enrollment in upper-level courses. However, if these attempts to increase the numbers of students in classes fail, and a class of inadequate numbers develops, the class still can be saved. In courses such as parliamentary procedure or group discussion built upon participation in a group, students can be required to participate in groups outside the classroom. Classroom activity can focus on instruction in the theory and research relevant to the topic, while behavioral skills are developed through the outside activites. Such an approach makes grading difficult, but not impossible. Although rarely convenient and often impossible, a teacher can visit the outside groups and evaluate the participation, or require students to observe and evaluate each other. Another possibility is basing grades on the students' analyses of the experience, rather than on the experience itself. Selection of this final option would mean that students' grades would reflect their ability to apply the theory studied conceptually rather than behaviorally; that is, one would evaluate cognitive skill rather than behavioral skill. While none of the evaluation options appear particularly attractive, all are legitimate possibilities.

If the only deficiency created by small class enrollment is the lack of an audience for public speaking or interpretative performances, a similar solution can be adopted. When few students enroll in advanced courses, the instructor can become a booking agent, arranging performance engagements for the students within the institution as well as the community. By publicizing the availability of student speakers, such a program can be successful. While it may require extra time and effort, the advantages to the students, the department, and the university exceed that disadvantage. The students can be given release time equal to the time spent speaking outside of class. Students generally will value the realism of such assignments as well as the feedback they receive. In addition, a department will benefit from the increased visibility within the campus community. The image of a concerned, vital discipline improves as colleagues in other departments are no longer required to ask what do students in communication do. A side benefit of such visibility can be an increase in non-majors electing courses in communication. The university also can profit from this type of service both in terms of image boosting and public relations.

Administering an Effective Forensics Program

A successful competitive forensics program is not impossible at a small school. Due to limitations in interested participants and in financial resources, successful programs may be more difficult to establish and sustain at smaller schools. It requires actively recruiting talented and motivated students from basic communication classes, high school seniors, and transfer students. Such activities as hosting high school speech tournaments and running summer high school speech institutes can aid the recruitment effort. Careful budgeting, fund-raising activities, and seeking of tax deductible donations from alumni, community organizations, and citizens can help overcome financial limitations. However, even in economic matters, it appears easier to continue a successful program than to establish one. Generally, institutional financial support in the form of budget allocations and/or scholarships for team members is more easily attained once a team has proven itself as successful competitively. So, although smallness does not preclude success, the limitations on both human and financial resources can make the administration of a successful forensics program a difficult task at a small institution.

Conclusion

Speech communication faculty who accept positions at smaller academic institutions can expect to face many problems which derive from limited financial and human resources particular to smaller communities. The solutions to many of those problems lie in an enlarged view of possibilities, a reaching out beyond the confines of departments and even institutions, an expanded concept of community. The process of seeking solutions prompted by particular needs can be a blessing for faculty at smaller schools.

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DEVELOPING AN ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMUNICATION PROGRAM

Terence Jackson

One has to search very hard to find a British College or University which offers an undergraduate or graduate program in communication. It has a subject which simply has not evolved in the United Kingdom. Of the sixty-six universities and polytechnics in England and Wales only two polytechnics offer a BA in communication.

Warnborough College is a small college in the English countryside offering a communication degree within an American academic program. This short paper is about the various strands of communication to be found within British and American acedemia, and of the various traditions within the two education systems.

Most readers will know a great deal about the higher education system in the United States, but very little about the British system. In order to understand the various strands which have been brought together within the communication program at Warnborough College, and to comprehend the state of the art in England, it is necessary to have an idea of the distinction between further and higher education, and the traditions of vocational and non-vocational education.

The Educational Context

The post-secondary school system in England and Wales is divided into further education and higher education. Further education is mainly vocational in nature, although general educational qualifications can be pursued, and students can enter from the age of sixteen. Many students are part-time and sent to college one day a week by their employers as part of a traineeship or apprenticeship. Others pursue a one or two year full-time course in areas such as engineering and business studies. Most courses range up to degree entry level, and students finish their full-time courses at the age of eighteen or nineteen. However, there is a great deal of overlap with the higher education sector, and courses in advanced further education can range up to the level of second year degree work. There are a whole range of certifications by qualifying papers which can be gained at the various levels, and these are usually awarded by external examining bodies. Because of the diversity of these qualifications there is an effort to rationalize the system through the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC) which is now the main examining and validating body in vocational education.

Within technical education in Britain there has been a tradition of liberal education which forms an integral part of the education of technicians and apprentices within the colleges of further education. From this tradition has grown course modules entitled general and communication studies which are a requirement of BTEC courses in technical studies. Within business education business English has always been a requirement. Over the last five or six years this has evolved into a requirement for business communication. Within BTEC courses in business studies people and communication is a required module. This comprises written communication, interpersonal skills training, and organizational communication components. Although these courses are vocational in nature, the strong liberal education tradition has persisted, despite being under some threat. The content of communication can be a consideration which leaves the door open for a healthy infusion of liberal education into these courses which could be otherwise quite vocationally narrow.

In further education, therefore, communication is an increasingly strong subject, although at present there are no professional associations for communication teachers nor any educational journals in this area of study. This situation is partly explained by the lack of communication courses in higher education.

Higher education in Britain is different from that in the United States. As in further education, all institutions are state funded. Only universities may confer degrees, although students at the polytechnics can obtain degrees which are conferred by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). This is an external, state-financed body which validates degree courses run by polytechnics. Polytechnics are vocationally orientated with strong links to industry, although academic degrees can be pursued. At degree level there is very little communication work done, but human relations is strong in business courses such as those for BTEC Higher National Diploma. There was one university offering a BA in communication studies, but this was eliminated two years ago because of government cuts in educational expenditures.

Despite this situation there is a great wealth of research work in mass communication and in organization and interpersonal communication being undertaken within the universities. The source of this work is to be found mainly within departments of sociology and psychology. One notable exception to this last statement

is Colin Cherry, late professor of telecommunications, Imperial College, London University, who, before his death, made great strides in bringing together the various strands of communication research. Nobody has yet emerged who seems willing or able to carry on this work.

One academic who has done much work in consolidating mass communication research is Denis McQuail who has recently taken up a chair in the Netherlands. His work has gone some way in integrating the field of communication in Britain. A researcher who has developed an international reputation in interpersonal communication and particularly in non-verbal communication is the social psychologist Michael Argyle at Oxford University. Despite this research being undertaken in British Universities, it is very fragmented: you have to know where to look for it.

Additionally, there is one other major source of development. Human relations training within industry has for some time been quite strong within Britain. Research being undertaken in schools of management within the universities, and practical work within industrial training contexts, are major sources of information in the area of interpersonal and organizational communication. American imports such as transactional analysis are approaches used within this context.

Program Development

The main problem of developing a course in communication similar to an American degree program in England is that it simply is not a British subject. Associated with this is the problem that books on the subject are particularly difficult to obtain. Students going to the library shelves marked communication are sadly disappointed. Nevertheless, the Oxford environs of Warnborough College represent very fertile hunting grounds for literature sources within university libraries of social studies, psychology, and even management and business studies.

Additionally, the British university system has always fostered a teaching approach based on formal lectures and informal, personal, face-to-face tutoring. This has been part of a tradition which favours theoretical subjects rather than the more practical aspects of acquiring communicaton skills. Many courses within a communication program are unashamedly theoretical in nature requiring a great deal of individual enquiry and initiative by the student. The structure of classes is such that the dynamics of the classroom group leave much to be desired in the more practically oriented courses, particularly where classes are taught on a tutorial basis. However, where student numbers are small, outsiders can be brought in as role players. Where student numbers are large formal lectures can give way to workshop groups.

The communication program at Warnborough College was placed by design within the Division of Business and Professional Studies. This was partly through the belief that the strengths of communication as a subject and its marketability lie within its applications, and partly because communication would introduce a healthy dose of liberal education into a principally vocationally orientated division.

A major aim was to give students a grounding in communication theory and research methods within a liberal arts curriculum, drawing on the various discipline strands (sociology, psychology, linguistics, etc.), and then steering communication majors towarda a particular vaocational orientation (business, journalism, instruction, health, etc.), or reinforcing other majors' career orientations (e.g. education majors could take a course in instructional communication, business majors in business communication, etc.).

The experience within a business and professional studies division could also be drawn on as a source for experiential learning. Students are particularly impressed by professional situations which can be simulated and worked through in order to learn from experience. There is still much scope for faculty team work in this area within the division, but as a method of teaching has ample prededents in further education and is actively encouraged by BTEC. Business contacts of division faculty also are a valuable source of interships, and a number of students have been successfully placed in communication-related work such as public relations and broadcasting.

The communication teaching undertaken at Warnborough College can broadly be divided into two aspects representing specialities of the faculty: interpersonal communication (including interpersonal processes, small-group behavior, and organizational communication); and mass communication (including journalism). Although still theoretical in approach, there is increasingly an emphasis on acquiring skill which will be useful in personal and professional life. Here there is a four-pronged approach to the development of communication skills through: (1) self-development; (2) social skills; (3) cognitive skills; and (4) linguistic skills. These four aspects represent the main components and sources of literature on communication in Britain.

Self development draws on theoretical work within psychology, the more practical work of psychotherapy and applications in management training. Social skills draw on the social skills as well as the more practical work already mentioned within management training. Cognitive skills development is important for decision making and is important as is the theoretical work of academic psychologists. Linguistic skills and linguistic analysis is important for both interpersonal and mass communications. Research in both linquistics and sociology within the area of content analysis and ideology also has implication for the value content of communication and for the idea of a liberal education within skills training: it is no good being a skilled communicator if you have nothing worthwhile to communicate.

Further Developments

As an independent Anglo-American College, Warnborough is in a unique position. Drawing on the strengths of the American communication curriculum and the somewhat diversified strengths of the various communication strands within Britain, the College could find itself as the springboard for more unification in this discipline area within the United Kingdom It is still undergoing a learning process within the discipline, but this is a feature which should be retained within any academic discipline no matter how well developed. Its

teaching methods place faculty in an intensive interaction process with students, and from future generations of communcation students, teachers will learn more about this ubiquitous subject.

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THE SMALL COLLEGE AS A CAREER OPTION: TEACHING AT A SMALL COLLEGE

Ellen Hay

The Fall, 1984, *Communication Quarterly* reported a survey conducted by Lance, Buckley, and Deetz which questioned a group of 250 randomly selected speech communication faculty from across the country. From this sample, the researchers profiled six faculty groupings who "indicated being satisfied with their jobs." One of these groupings was the small college faculty. The profile of the small college faculty offered the following description: *The small college faculty look to teach in schools known for the liberal arts tradition. These schools reward good teaching and do not consider publishing as important as teaching...They see themselves as an important part of the student's development. They have a sense of leading a balanced life.*

You don't have to ask small college faculty members how their jobs are going. They'll initiate conversations with you about their work activities because they find all that they are doing is exciting and 'brand new.'

Small college teaching is a viable career option for those entering or seeking a change in the profession. Many diverse opportunities are available. A quick computation from the Midwest Regional Edition of *Barron's Profiles of American Colleges* reveals that 228 of 397 institutions (57%) listed are schools with less than two thousand students. Some are private while others are public. Some offer liberal arts orientations while others focus on career specialities. Some are church affiliated while others are independent. Some are rural while others are urban.

The purpose of this paper is to explore what life is like for speech communication educators on the small college campus. It is intended to acquaint graduate students and their advisors with some of the dimensions of this career option, and to offer small college faculty comparative data on programs at similar institutions.

The Survey Used

From the 228 colleges with student enrollments of less than 2000 that were listed in the 1981 *Barron's Midwest Regional Guide to Colleges*, one-third were randomly chosen and sent a survey was addressed to the chairperson, speech communication department. Of the surveys mailed, 46% were returned.

General Descriptions: The average enrollment for the institutions responding was 900 students. This ranged from a low enrollment of 320 to a high of 1700. The communication department averaged 2.4 faculty members. Of the departments, 54% were staffed by two or three people. Of these departments, 75% employed part time teaching staff. Faculty at these institutions taught approximately eleven hours each week and had about six different course preparations during each academic school year.

Of the colleges surveyed, 83% offered a major in communication with an average enrollment of thirty students. At these institutions 75% of the students took at least one speech course. Approximately 28% of the students attending these colleges enrolled in two courses, and 12% took three or more courses.

Communication Curriculum: The basic communication course was a fairly standard offering at these small colleges: 93% of the schools had such a course, and an average of five sections was available each year at each school.

Beyond the basic course, the curriculums at the surveyed colleges varied greatly. The second most popular course was oral interpretation which was available at 84% of the institutions. Courses in media, radio/tv production, and advanced public speaking were present in 75% of the curriculums. Courses in interpersonal communication, organizational communication, and discussion were offered in 50% of the schools. The study of rhetoric and communication theory was taught at 33% of the schools.

Many speech and theater departments were combined. Of the respondents 75% indicated that courses in acting, directing, and stage craft were a part of their curriculums.

Other Faculty Assignments: In addition to teaching, the faculty members at these schools noted that they fulfilled a number of other expectations. They spent approximately three hours each week in meetings, three hours advising students, and three hours working with student groups and organizations. Of the institutions 53% formally or informally encouraged their faculty members to conduct research. Community service was even more of a priority. It was listed as an expectation by 87% of the respondents.

Perceptions: When asked to share some of the drawbacks they perceived in the small college situation, these communication educators frequently noted the low salaries and the high work load. Many felt that the number of different preparations along with other institutional expectations was overwhelming and without adequate compensation.

Other disadvantages stemmed from the limited financial resources of small colleges. Facilities and equipment were mentioned as problems at some colleges. A lack of support for research and professional travel was cited.

Some respondents also noted the somewhat uncertain future of some small colleges.

The size of the faculty had drawbacks as well. Respondents missed the opportunity to interact with others in their discipline. They also felt constrained by the curriculum which did not allow for the development of specialized courses.

These disadvantages can be weighted against the numerous advantages which respondents reported. Most valued was the close interaction and contact with students and the small, personal nature of the classes. The respondents felt that small colleges provided an unique opportunity to know students as individuals. They found it rewarding to contribute to student growth and progress.

Another cited benefit was the sense of community present at the institutions. Communication faculty often associated with faculty from other disciplines and participated in decision and policy-making for the college. They had a significant impact upon the entire curriculum and the institution as a whole. The lack of red tape and the flexibility to develop new programs was appreciated.

In juxtaposition to those who felt confined by the curriculum, many faculty members enjoyed the variety in their positions. Teaching assignments were diverse. They did not feel locked into teaching only a limietd number of courses in one or two areas.

In making suggestions to those interested in obtaining a small college position, these respondents unanimously endorsed a diversified program of graduate study. Preparation across the discipline was important. Individuals at small colleges needed to set effective teaching as a priority and tc realize the difference in expectations at small colleges in comparison to large institutions. Many commented on their own adjustment to these differences.

Discussion

The results of this survey confirm the experiences of many small college faculty members. There is no one paradigm which successfully describes small college communication departments. Undoubtedly, anyone seeking such a position should examine the characteristics of the particular institution. The survey also pointed up some further implications for graduate school advisors, those seeking employment, and those currently teaching in small colleges.

One obvious implication is the need for graduate students and their advisors to plan programs of study which are a balance between depth and breadth. A broad-based program will help prepare an individual for the diversity of the small college curriculum. While some students enter graduate school with the intention of assuming small college positions, many others who come to such positions do so without much prior planning. Graduate advisors and students must discuss this potential employment opportunity and consider how it may impact on programs of study. Chances are individuals will not teach more than one introductory course in the area of their specialization and will teach subjects across the spectrum of the communication curriculum.

Another equally apparent implication is the emphasis that is placed on quality teaching at small colleges. Many times the ability to teach effectively is assumed and never directly addressed. In addition to preparing speech communication specialists, graduate schools also must prepare speech communication educators. While some of the responsibility for this development might fall to colleges and to departments, the specific dimensions of communication should be considered. What should be offered by the communication department? How are goals and objectives selected and stated to focus various communication offerings? What learning experiences facilitate the development of communication skills and the acquisition of communication knowledge? How can feedback promote growth in speaking? How does the instructor know when he/she has accomplished the stated objectives? These are the sorts of questions that need ongoing attention by communication educators. In addition to studying teaching, graduate students also will want to gather evidence which demonstrates their effectiveness in the classroom. Such proof will support an employment application.

This survey served as a good reminder that the importance of the basic course can not be underestimated. This course must be approached with enthusiasm and excitement if the communication department is to maintain a significant role in the small college. It cannot be seen as something the instructor puts up with so he/she can do something more preferable. With only an average of thirty majors in the department, upper level communication courses must depend upon the enrollment of nonmajors. These nonmajors will only be attracted if their experiences in the first course demonstrate that the study of communication is important, challenging, and rewarding.

A career in small college teaching is a possibility that deserves careful consideration. While there are disadvantages, the advantages are numerous. The comments on a survey completed at Heidelberg College in Ohio seem to summarize the sentiments of many small college faculty: *I'm certain my eyes are clouded, my vision colored after twenty years of small college teaching. I have found it rewarding, challenging, never dull ....This is not to say that frustrations are nonexistent...But these decrease in significance when I recall the close association I've had with so many students over the years ....A letter which arrived in the same mail with this survey says it better, 'Thank you for the education you've given, for the friendship and guidance you've offered, for inspiring me to have the courage to face my problems and to chase my dreams.' That's what a small college is all about!*

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STRATEGIES FOR SEEKING EMPLOYMENT IN THE SMALL COLLEGE

Sandra Madsen

Howard R. Bowen, Professor of Economics and Education at Claremont Graduate School, observed in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, *American colleges and universities will need to hire about 500,000 faculty members in the next 25 years, thereby replacing virtually the entire professoriate.*[1] He goes on to point out what while these hirings will be alow over the next decade, they will be coninuous and will accelerate as current tenured faculty reach retirement age in the coming years. Many of htese new faculty members will find themselves seeking employment in small colleges, either by choice or by happenstance. With that possibility looming large, it is important for the graduate schools and current graduate students who will be in that labor pool to think about the porfessional needs of the small college.

Current trends have provided a supply of faculty members that, up to this point, exceeds the demand, so that colleges and universities can have their pick of the new recipients of doctorates. Colleges, which for years, were unable to attract PhD's or even masters candidates from prestigious universities, are now able to attract large pools of well qualified candidates for virtually all openings. In light of this trend, it is worthwhile to examine the three variables that small colleges consider in the hiring process--credentials, commitment, and collegiality.

The academic background of an individual is the first and foremost qualification to be considered in a hiring decision. Small colleges no less than large universities seek the best qualified people available, the best qualified usually is translated as PhD from a quality graduate program who has shown an inclination toward scholarship and a willingness to continue in that direction. As suggested, that type has increasingly become available.

While most faculty members can understand the importance of the scholarship and depth of commitment to a discipline required for teaching in large communication programs, they often feel put-upon by the large numbers of courses which they must teach at the small school. Conflict also appears when providing the service courses that are a part of general education or distribution requirements at many schools. The graduate school model relies heavily on teaching assistants to provide that service function while allowing the senior faculty the luxury of indulging their own interest area. As Wayne Booth said in his 1982 presidential address to the Modern Language Association: *We have chosen--no one required it of us--to say to the world, almost in so many words, that we do not care who teaches the nonmajors or under what conditions, as long as the troublesome hordes move on and out: forced in by requirements, forced out by discouragement, or by disgust, or by literal failure. The great public fears or despises us because we hire a vast army of underpaid flunkies to teach the so-called service courses, so that we can gladly teach, in our advanced courses, those precious souls who survive the gauntlet. Give us lovers and we will love them, but do not expect us to study courtship. If we had decided to run up a flag on the quad saying that we care not a whit whether our society consists of people who practice critical understanding, so long as we are left free to teach advanced courses, we could not have given a clearer message.*[2]

Most PhD holders were the teaching assistants who had served in the ranks of the underpaid workers of the service courses and who, upon receiving the degree, had hoped to find themselves immediately among the ranks of the senior professors. Upon entering the small college environment, such people often are distressed to find themselves once again teaching the lowly service course. The problem is that this perspective on the service course negates the preparation in a discipline which should be a prerequisite to teaching one of these courses, be it interpersonal communication or public speaking. The person who desires to teach interpersonal communication should have a firm grounding in theories of perception and cognition, more than a passing knowledge of general semantics and nonverbal behavior, and be adept at small group processes and conflict negotiation. The ability to use gaming, and simulation, and experiential learning theories as teaching techniques will enhance the classroom climate. Finally, the ability to include references to business communication, family communication, male/female communication and other specialized contexts will adapt the course to a broad population.

Public speaking, the staple to most undergraduate programs, need be no less rigorous. A well-taught course requires knowledge of argumentation and persuasion theory, of listening and learning theories, of critical evaluation of the speaking process, and an appreciation of the role of public address in a democratic society. An introduction to ethics in communication could probably be included to the advantage of all students.

Assuming that these two courses, interpersonal communication and public speaking, make up the service component and perhaps even the bulk of the load of a small college teach-

er, the required credentials for teaching at a small school have been sketched. The research skills learned in graduate school also have a place in the small institutions. As the Association of American Colleges' Project on Redefining the Meaning and Purpose of Baccalaureate Degrees recently pointed out, *the enemy of good teaching is not research, but rather the spirit that says that this is the only worthy or legitimate task for faculty members. An emphasis on teaching, moreover, does not require the denigration of research. The finest teachers are often the best researchers.*[3]

While academic credentials at the small college will require the terminal degree, a small college is probably less interested in the depth to which one has pursued the degree generally, and the secondary interests which are reflected in course work, in the BA and MA degrees, and in the candidate's interests for the future. Researchers, in the narrowest sense of the word, are not highly prized in small colleges. People interested in continuing to educate themselves on a variety of issues applicable to the range of teaching assignments, and who can maintain academic discipline with minimal stimulation by fellow travelors, are prized. That is not to say that every small school forces its faculty to teach the entire gamut of the speech/theatre discipline, although there are some that do, but rather that a broader diversity of teaching options is required in the small college than in the larger research institutions.

The second requirement is commitment to teaching. Recent national reports have condemned a trend which has been a serious problem to small schools for years--the emphasis in graduate school on producing researchers with narrow interests rather than producing teachers. The AAC project suggests that *central to the troubles and to the solution are the professors, for the development that overwhelmed the old curriculum and changed the entire nature of higher education was the transformation of the professors from teachers concerned with the characters and minds of their students to professionals, scholars with Ph.D. degrees with an allegiance to academic disciplines stronger than their commitment to teaching or to the life of the institutions where they are employed. As appropriate as research is as the focus of energies and resources in the research university, the exclusive concern with research in the training of recipients of the Ph.D. degree--to the neglect of any concern with teaching or with any professional responsibility other than to scholarship--has encouraged college faculties to abandon the sense of corporate responsibility that characterized professors of the pre-professional era.* [4]

Small colleges, faced with declining enrollments and tight federal and gift money, cannot afford to hire PhD's solely interested in research. Their strongest selling point has been, and will continue to be, friendly, caring treatment of undergraduates by highly educated faculty members. Excellence in the classroom must be the factor which sets the small college apart. But the ability to provide quality teaching is limited by the ability to hire people to fit Howard Bowen's description. The ideal characteristics for a faculty member are *a sound general education, intellectual breadth and a contemplative disposition, keen mastery of the special field and the motivation to keep up to date, and the ability to serve as exemplars to some students.*[5]

Many schools claim to place emphasis on teaching, but they tend to provide the larger rewards to people who publish. In small schools, the money tends to be placed squarely on the faculty member who relates well to students both in and out of the classroom. Thus, when a small college seeks a faculty member, they look to evidence of teaching experience and success; even if it is only experience as a teaching assistant during graduate school, it is an essential ingredient to being hired.

A final criterion would be collegiality. The ability to get along with one's peers is essential in any institution but the skills necessary at a small school may be slightly different. In a large school or department, the ability to speak the specialized language of one's field may be the first step in achieving acceptance. Recognizing the name of Kenneth Burke, being able to name any of the Attic orators, or having passing familiarity with the names of the last five presidents of a national association may go far toward moving a new person into the inner circle of acceptability. In a small school there may be no other person, or at best one or two other people, who speak the specialized language. And if the department consists of radio/tv, drama, and speech, there may be no common language apparent. Even the pairing of a rhetorician with a small group person can lead to language difficulties and little common ground.

More than likely, one's peers at a small college will come from the large groupings found in divisions consisting of such discipline as speech and drama, English, languages, and mass communication. A second element of collegiality is being able to work with the common grouping to guarantee that one gets a slice of the departmental pie. Drawing students or FTE's is important everywhere, but in a large school a loss of students may mean a reduction of one faculty member in the department. In a small college, a reduction can mean the elimination of the one faculty member and, hence, the extinction of the program. The solution in many cases involves choosing between staffing a full-fledged major, or offering to provide the service courses to the larger institution which will guarantee the presence of communication arts somewhere in the curriculum.

Even where it is feasible to offer a full-fledged major, it may still be necessary to reach out to other disciplines to guarantee viable numbers. The key to full classes is the ability to convince colleagues in English, business, education, social work, or what-have-you departments that your course offerings should be included in their requirements for a major or at least as recommended supporting work. It also may be necessary to convince the academic standards committee that communication belongs in the general education requirement passed by the institution. But the ability to persuade colleagues to support a program involves a willingness to reciprocate. One also must be willing to include courses from other departments in a major,

and courses for non-majors must be adapted to the needs not only of communication majors, but also to the other disciplines in the college. One need not offer watered down courses to achieve this end, but some indication of adaptation is necessary to a continued working relationship among disciplines.

Again, because of the limits of size, many small colleges cannot offer the range of specialized courses offered at major universities. This limit is often offset by cross-disciplinary offerings and by the 4-1-4 calendar which provides diversity within the set curriculum. This approach to diversity requires faculty members who are able to look beyond their own disciplines in order to see relationships that can be developed across disciplinary lines. Communication is a logical center ground for much of the cross-pollination which occurs, whether it is the rhetoric of a historical figure or period, argument and scientific theory, or simply small group processes and business management. Communication methodology as well as content areas span so many fields that the opportunities for team teaching are endless. But these opportunities will only materialize if the personality of the person in the communication position is such as to reach out to shape these occasions.

Collegiality also extends to committee work, and there is ample opportunity to demonstrate these skills on most small college campuses. Collegiality is not a hard quality to demonstrate, especially for a person in communication. An articulate and willing new faculty member will be given ample opportunity to take part in small college activites, from committee meetings to student activities, and all that is necessary to achieve the goals of longevity is a willing attitude to reach out to this larger constituency.

This overview of the working conditions at a small college is not intended to discourage a person from seeking employment in such an environment. There are other factors which favor employment at a small school. Balanced against the inability to teach only one's research interest area is the opportunity for diversity, to explore new fields, to follow avocational as well as vocational interests. Changing career focus is easier in a setting where you are not locked into one teaching format and content area. Offering new or different courses also is facilitated by the smaller, less formal bureaucracy which characterizes small schools. Although colleagues must be consulted about change, there is less need to be protective about territory, especially if one is the only speech person and, thus, able to pick any part of the field in which to work.

A second plus is the reduction in pressure to publish at all costs. Publications certainly are important, but they should be motivated by interest in the area rather than seeing one's work in print in order to continue to be employed. With the emphasis on good teaching linked to scholarly growth, publishing can occur at your interest level rather than at administrative fiat.

Finally, the opportunity to work with undergraduate students and feel a direct investment in their future can be very rewarding. Similarly, working closely with faculty members across all fields of interest can help one to look at the field of communication in new and exciting ways.

Ultimately, the choice of a small school must reflect an individual's desire to work at the undergraduate level, to prefer active participation in the classroom to research in depth, and to view communication less as a specific field of study to be pursued in depth and more as a central set of theories and skills which need to be integrated into the total curriculum of an institution.

Teaching in a small college can be a very exciting and rewarding career choice. But a person needs to think seriously about preparing for the demands that this choice implies. Current graduate programs do not necessarily consider this career choice in their requirements for the PhD degree, and many candidates are not advised of this option while they are planning their programs. Persons interested in teaching at the small college should look carefully at their credentials, their commitment to teaching, and their willingness to fit in. Rest assured employers will.

Endnotes

[1]"Founding Out Institution Anew," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, November 7, 1984, p. 1.

[2]"To Reclaim a Legacy: Text of Report on Humanities in Education," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, November 28, 1984, p. 19.

[3]"Integrity in the College Curriculum," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 13, 1985, p. 15.

[4]*Ibid.*, p. 14.

[5]"Founding Our Institution Anew," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, November 28, 1984, p. 1.

ACHIEVING SUCCESS IN SMALL COLLEGES

Richard W. Platt

Success may be defined in many ways, but most would agree that upward mobility within a system is primary. Looking at higher education in America as the general system, some facts need to be recognized. Projections for the next decade by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics show an average growth rate for most jobs of 20 to 29%. College teaching is not part of the growth rate. A 15% decrease of available jobs in the profession is predicted. The two major causal factors in this state of affairs are the decline in the eighteen to twenty-two year old population and reductions in public support for higher education. Private colleges suffer even more in this latter regard than do public institutions. For these reasons, some small colleges may not survive the next decade. In addition, most institutions have a high percentage of tenured faculty, mainly in their forties and fifties.

What these facts mean is decreased opportunity and mobility both across the profession and within an institution. In other words, jobs, tenure, and promotion are becoming harder to get.

On the other hand, the need for communication-related knowledge and skills is increasing in both general education and in the job market. Furthermore, the field is in a significant period of expansion, especially in its applied uses. This has led to substantial curriculum deveopment and increases in majors at universities and colleges both large and small. At the same time, graduate schools continue to glut the market with PhD's and adjunct faculty are increasing at an alarming rate in undergraduate classrooms.

With mobility and success becoming more problematic, it is imperative that young faculty plan very carefully for success within an institution. That is precisely what Trent and Andrews suggest in their article "Achieving Upward Mobility in Academia: Priorities and Strategies.[1] This paper will cover much the same territory but with an emphasis upon the small college.

Trent and Andrews view advancement as system dependent and describe a process of analyzing the way in which an institution defines itself and the priorities it has established in order to develop strategies for upward mobility. They suggest three preliminary steps including (1) assessment of the organization, (2) understanding particular expectations, and (3) preparation of a professional development plan.

The first step, assessing the organization, involves an analysis based upon the formal and informal means used by the institution to present itself to both external and internal constituencies. The mission and goals statement and planning documents of the institution along with faculty and administrative handbooks provide a beginning. Close attention should be given to faculty governance and administrative structures and procedures. Relevant documents at the department level are even more critical. New faculty members are usually provided with some form of group orientation which introduces the institution through personnel who are central within its operation. In a small college it is not difficult to know who these people are or to develop positive working relations with them. Colleagues who are involved in college committees and who have achieved success at the college are good sources of information and assistance. However, the person who holds the key to success and is responsible for individual achievement is the department chairperson.

The assessment step should provide new faculty with a knowledge of the traditions, values, and goals of the institution and of the department. Priorities related to teaching, research, and service should be clarified along with attitudes toward faculty, students, and staff. One must be aware of structures and personnel related to placement, evaluation, and upward mobility within the system.

The second step, understanding particular expectations, has to do with identification of norms and patterns relating to one's role within the system. Clearly it is connected to being employed in a particular area at a particular time. It is related to institutional and departmental directions. How one sees a role will depend upon the opportunities perceived for initiative and innovation related to personal orientations, strengths, and desires. The departmental chairperson and the dean in a small college are usually readily accessible. The role they play within the organization, the role they would like new faculty to play, and the role new faculty want to play need to be integrated in order to achieve success and satisfaction.

An understanding of roles and expectations provides a basis for the third step--formalizing goals and objectives in a professional development plan to be established between the faculty member and the department chairperson. The term professional suggests a context which provides faculty and chairperson with additional resources and support systems related to development. Such resources may be the American Association of University Professors, the Speech Communica-

tion Association, or the Association for Communication Administration. Also of help will be publications such as *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, professional journals, and books on higher education.[2]

A plan should take into account any special system related factors such as tenure or promotion quotas. For the young faculty member each aspect and stage of a plan should be related to levels of mobility and achievement. Mobility will be a matter of moving through levels of reappointment, tenure, and promotion. A plan may include possible moves in the direction of administration and/or other institutions; however, a focus should be maintained upon mobility within one institution. Achievement will be related to personal and professional goals in the context of definitions of success and rewards for it. Being awarded merit pay, receiving a grant, completing a doctorate, having an article published, getting positive evaluations by students, or being elected to a college committee, are all rewarding experiences that are part of professional development. They need, however, to be considered within the context of the priorities and relative values of the system. If being adviser for the campus radio station is not highly valued by the people who promote or give merit pay, it may not be something in which one will want to invest major amounts of time and energy.

It is never too late to establish a specific development plan and to begin its implementation. Too often it is either not done, or it is not done in a systematic and timely way. Success depends upon achievement and that, in turn, calls for setting goals and establishing particular behavior in relation to teaching, scholarship, and service to the college and external communities. Activities and their evaluation are important in relation to organizational values.

The small college is, more often than not, a place that has a strong liberal arts tradition and that places a high priority upon effective teaching of undergraduates. These values are probably reflected in the institutional documents mentioned earlier. However, what is in print must be viewed in comparison to what the practices really are within the system.

Effective teaching, regardless of its value in terms of advancement, should be central in any faculty development plan. In the small college, not only classroom teaching but also formal and informal interaction with students for purposes of academic advisement, personal counseling, activity advisement, and even socialization are likely to be valued.

Excellence as a teacher is dependent upon knowledge, skills, creativity, and attitudes toward teaching and learning and toward students. Strengths in these areas can be developed and enhanced, particularly if one is open to utilizing feedback from students, colleagues, and supervisors.

Expertise can be enhanced in a variety of ways including reading literature in the field, attendance and participation in conferences and workshops, research and publication, talking with colleagues, and additional study. Teaching skills can be increased through similar activities. Growth and strength will result from teaching courses at various levels within one's area of expertise. Instructional development also can be enhanced by establishing new courses, upgrading old courses, utilizing new approaches and new media in the classroom, working with audio-visual and library staff, and interacting with faculty in other disciplines. Team teaching is another excellent means of developing expertise and teaching skills.

It is not enough, however, for a professional development plan to focus only upon ways of increasing the effectiveness of teaching. Effectiveness as a teacher needs to be documented and communicated. It is essential that both what is done in the way of development and one's personal ability as a teacher be recognized, especially by the department chairperson, the dean, and the tenure and promotion committee.

The primary means of documentation will involve evaluations by students, visitations by peers and the chairperson, and self-appraisals. Student data can come from student rating forms. If not, develop appropriate forms and have them administered, if possible by a neutral party. Letters from current as well as from former students also can be valuable; again, they should be solicited by a neutral party such as the chairperson or colleagues. Both quantitative data and qualitative material are important. Most student questionnaires include space for brief comments, while letters will provide more thoughtful and deeper responses. Similarly, grading patterns might provide data useful in documenting effectiveness. Course syllabi and examinations can be valuable in this regard.

There should be written documentation of classroom visits and observations by colleagues or the chairperson. Colleagues may write letters of a broader scope to be included in one's file. The chairperson should write an annual evaluation at the conclusion of each academic year. Prior to the chair's report, one should write a self-appraisal which can provide information the chair might find useful. If, upon reviewing the chair's report, it appears incomplete, inaccurate, or unacceptable, request appropriate modifications before signing it. If there is disagreement with the chair or if the chair is unwilling to make the requested modifications, write an addendum which expresses the alternate point of view. This applies to all areas of an evaluation.

Research and scholarship in the small college will probably rank a close second in importance to teaching as a measure of success. One way to determine its value is to consider the credit hour teaching load of the faculty along with class size, released time for research, and other support provided for scholarly activities. It is generally well accepted that scholarship enhances the knowledge of the teacher both in terms of substance and of methodology. Scholarships, if not essential for retention or tenure, may be important for promotion and for merit pay. As with teaching, scholarship is a critical part of a faculty development plan. Scholarship usually denotes the publication of books articles, and book reviews; the presentation of conference papers; the writing of research proposals for external funding; and creative activity such as writing or directing a play. Some colleges might include professional con-

sulting and direction of workshops in this category, though they are more likely to be considered service. Also considered under the scholarship umbrella may be organizing, chairing, or being a respondent on conference programs. Leadership in professional organizations can be placed in this category, but it belongs more clearly under service. Obviously these and related scholarship activities are not all of equal value. A faculty member needs to take that into acacount when deciding what kind of research and scholarship to undertake.

In the case of publication, the preference is likely to be for refereed national or regional journals within the maintstream of the faculty member's expertise. If the article is submitted or then rejected for publication, determine why and then make use of the feedback. Upon doing so, the article may be resubmitted or sent elsewhere with a better chance for acceptance.

Often an individual may take a teaching position without having completed the terminal degree. If that is done, completion of the degree should take precedence over other forms of scholarship. Currently, with few exceptions, non-PhD's are not likely to be granted tenure. These are questions, however, that should be discussed with the department chairperson.

Faculty should attend and participate in at least one national or regional convention each year. Ideally, participation ought to involve the presentation of a paper. Most small colleges will consider competitively selected or invited papers as evidence of scholarship. However, a competitively selected paper is likely to be more highly valued. Neither is likely to be weighted as heavily as publication in a major national or regional journal.

Small colleges, more than ever before, feel the need for support from external sources. As a consequence, along with a greater impetus toward professionalism and scholarship, the writing of proposals for grants has become a highly valued activity. The award of a grant by government, corporate, or foundation sources provides prestige and economic reward to both the faculty member and the institution. Attaining grants can be a major part of a faculty development plan.

The final category of the development plan involves service to the institution and to the external community. Small colleges often weigh this area more heavily than larger institutions, but certainly not on a par with teaching or scholarship.

College service includes, but is not limited to, membership on department and college committees, program and curriculum development, advisement, sponsorship of extra or co-curricular activities, supervision of internships, organization of departmental and college symposia, conferences and other similar events, or academic administration. In some cases administrative work for the college or department is of relatively high value, probably because it provides direct assistance to chairpersons and deans.

Service to the external community includes such activities as lecture and workshop presentations, media participation, professional consulting, service on local, state and national boards, commissions and committees of public or private agencies, and leadership in appropriate scholarly and professional associations.

Undoubtedly there are other activities not mentioned here which may be considered as part of a development plan. The attempt has been to highlight those most consistently valued in small colleges.

In higher education, as in other contexts, the quality of personal relations with colleagues and supervisors cannot be discounted when planning for success. In the small college such relations, as well as those involving students, are likely to count even more.

Structures and procedures for granting reappointment, tenure, promotion, and merit pay will vary from institution to institution. The same can be said for the weight and value of the criteria for evaluation and judgment. In any event, it will be crucial to document everything that will support one's case as an effective and valued member of the profession and of the college faculty.

It is no simple matter to achieve excellence nor to ensure the perception of it on the part of colleagues and administrators. Systematic faculty development planning is an approach that will help focus professional goals and clarify how they can be achieved. The small college environment provides a context of collegiality where striving toward those goals can be a unique and rewarding experience.

Endnotes

[1]Judith S. Trent and Patricia Hayes Andrews, "Achieving Upward Mobility in Academia: Priorities and Strategies," *Association for Communication Administration Bulletin*, 50 (October, 1984), pp. 64-68.

[2]Three excellent sources are (1) Allan Tucker, *Chairing the Academic Department* New York: American Council on Education and Macmillan, 1984), (2) Kenneth E. Eble, *The Aims of College Teaching* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983), and (3) Joseph Lowman, *Mastering the Techniques of Teaching* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1984).

STAFFING THE BASIC COURSE AND STILL HAVING FLEXIBILITY TO MEET PROGRAM NEEDS

Alan Lerstrom

There is a shared concern among speech communication professors as to how a small communication faculty can meet both campus-wide needs for an effective basic course and curricular needs of students who wish to major or minor in communication. One solution to this concern is to assign the responsibility of teaching the basic course to one faculty member and to employ undergraduate assistants to conduct the laboratory sessions. There is a body of literature from various disciplines that discusses the advantages of using undergraduate assistants. While a number of articles appeared in the early 1970's when college enrollments were still rapidly growing interest in using undergraduate assistants in speech communication courses is rather new.

In reviewing the literature on undergraduate assistants, a number of issues repeatedly appear: 1) the impact of using undergraduate assistants; 2) qualities and abilities needed for being an assistant; 3) activities and grading in the small group; and 4) limiting the number of times a student may be an assistant; and 5) type of remuneration. A number of benefits can occur when undergraduate assistants assist with the basic course. The use of laboratory groups reduces the amount of passive student involvement by increasing opportunities for small group discussion and participation. This, in turn, permits further exploration of theoretical and applied issues. Laboratory groups provide students with more opportunities to practice specific skills in public speaking, group participation, and active listening. Finally, the cost of teaching the basic course is minimized when student assistants are employed.

Student evaluations where student assistants are used emphasize that one of the most valuable and significant aspects of the basic course is the laboratory experience. They praise the assistants who are seen as being approachable, empathetic peers who can aid other students in understanding course content, and who can provide meaningful and significant feedback in regard to improving communication skills. With laboratory groups of ten to twelve students, students anticipate being called upon frequently; thus, they must be active and prepared participants in the learning experience.

While the issue of cost effectiveness should not be paramount when discussing instructional methods, the issue cannot be ignored. Seiler does provide detailed data on the cost per student credit hour at the University of Nebraska. The unique situation at Nebraska, however, does not permit comparison with other uses of student assistants. Crawford refers to the obvious economic benefits noted at Arizona State University while no data has been collected for the Central College program. Yet some generalizations can be made. If students are paid the federal minimum wage of $3.35 per hour and work six to ten hours per week, the cost to the college is slightly over $14,000 a year, or less than the salary for one faculty position. The savings are even greater in terms of the full time faculty. When eighty to ninety students enroll in the basic course, there would need to be three sections. By using student assistants, the full time faculty is free to teach two additional upper level courses each term.

Once a decision to use undergraduate assistants has been made, the criteria used to select the assistants needs to be established. Generally the literature agrees that student assistants should be able and competent students, but that they need not necessarily be the most qualified students in the department. The issue of major is less important than desire, a sense of responsibility, and interpersonal skills. For the most part assistants at Central College were majors or minors with a major in another behavioral science area, i.e., management, political science, sociology, or psychology. While one understood standard is that the assistant should either be taking or have taken the upper-level public speaking course, in general it seems that a potential student assistant: 1) should be a student with interpersonal skills to be able to effectively critique a fellow student's work; 2) should have the energy and desire to work with students of varying ability; and 3) should not seek self-aggrandizement or power over students. Experience has demonstrated that the student assistants were extremely hard working, dedicated, and mature individuals who wanted to provide the very best possible learning experience for other students.

The literature also reflects a variety of viewpoints regarding the need for uniformity in laboratory activities. The most extreme position was taken by Maas and Pressler who encouraged assistants to "discuss any topic within the large framework of general psychology." The opposite approach was taken at Central College. Each term there were two meeting times for the basic course and each section was divided into four laboratory groups. Students met in the large section 60% of the time and 40% in the laboratories. Since the laboratories were seen as being an integral and sustain-

ing part of the basic course, the approach was to provide each student and assistant with a very specific daily schedule for the class. Each laboratory group was doing the same activity on any given day. However, each laboratory group did become different and unique as it reacted to the assistant's style.

Assistant's style is the key element in this approach to teaching the basic course. It seems that assistant styles can be placed on a continuum that ranges from strong personal encouragement to more distant and less personalized involvement. When laboratory groups do become very close and supportive, questions arise as to the assistant's ability to comment objectively upon and to grade the students' work. Experience has shown that this is an unnecessary concern. Since the assistants are juniors and seniors and the students in the class primarily freshmen, the assistants seem to have the ability to be both empathetic peers and objective critics. Interestingly, assistants with the closest knit groups often give the most thorough and comprehensive critiques.

The issue of student assistants actually grading other students is significant. Crawford believes that there are ethical restrictions which prohibit students from actually assigning grades. Another approach allows the assistants to assign grades in the laboratories. Specifically, the assistants assign grades for projects which include: the introduction speech, a listening project, an information gain symposium in which 60% of the grade is based on the amount of information the audience retains over an extended period of time and a Persuasive Speech which is graded by two assistants. These represent only five of eleven grades used to compute the student's final grade. During the past year and one-half at Central College, over 550 students have taken the course and there have been only five appeals regarding student assigned grades.

It appears that two procedures have helped minimize complaints about grades. The first is to create assignments with numerous objectives, and the second is to work closely with the assistants to establish shared levels of expectations. This can be accomplished by critiquing speeches together during staff meetings and by making available to the assistants samples of written work that range in quality from poor to good. Given individual differences among student assistants, grading will never be absolutely uniform, but expectations regarding course objectives and goals can be standardized. This raises an important issue because a group of enthusiastic undergraduate assistants will provide a much more uniform course than will unenthusiastic full-time faculty.

A final issue revolves around the length of time a student should be an assistant and how the student should be compensated for work as an assistant. Once again the literature suggests a variety of approaches which range from allowing the student to be an assistant one time, in order to receive academic credit for the experience, to having the same assistants over a period of time. Probably students should serve for more than one term since, as with any new job, it takes time to become comfortable and successful. Wallace also points to an advantage of having assistant carryover: they prove to be very helpful for the new assistants in that they are role models who are co-workers and who can facilitate the orientation process.

Finally, the issue of remuneration must be considered. The logical options are to give the assistant academic credit or to provide a wage. At Central the assistants are paid, and since most of them are eligible for work-study, they are paid through those funds. But there are institutional funds from which a student can be paid if needed. Paying an assistant is beneficial because it establishes a positive, professional employer/employee relationship in which the assistants and the instructor become colleagues who share a mutual goal of providing the best possible learning experience for the students. The assistants should realize that the colleague relationship will not exist when they are enrolled in upper level courses.

The use of undergraduate assistants in the basic course can be beneficial since they provide caring, energetic, and empathetic links between the faculty member teaching the course and the students enrolled in it. Once again, approaching the basic course in this manner frees other faculty members to teach more courses which allows the departmental major or minor to be more viable.

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THE SPEECH TUTOR

Joseph O'Rourke

Teachers of speech communication at small colleges live and work in a different environment than their colleagues at larger universities. The size of the school, the informality of the environment, and the closeness between faculty and students encourage the small college teacher to try new ways of teaching. Thus, in 1974 the Wabash College Speech Department introduced a program that used undergraduates students to assist beginning public speaking students in topic selection, research, and rehearsal of speeches. Now in its tenth year the Speech Tutor program is well established and accepted by students and faculty as important to the teaching of public speaking. Certainly the informality of a small school such as Wabash with its 800 male students helped, but equally important was the unique arrangement with the college library. The purpose of this paper is to describe how an experimental project in library instruction evolved into a successful program of using undergraduate assistants in the basic speech course.

In 1970, Wabash College applied for and received a $50,000 matching grant from the Council of Library Resources to find ways of strengthening the role of academic libraries in the educational process. The aim was *to change the concept of the library from that of a storehouse of information to that of a workshop for the liberal arts.*[1] The chair of the committee responsible for meeting this goal invited faculty members from all disciplines to submit proposals for freshmen seminars. Any topic was acceptable as long as the class would use the discussion method, make extensive use of the library, and require weekly papers with a long paper at the end of the term. The hope was that the faculty member would serve as a model professional researcher and teacher who would help students make the transition from high school to college. In addition an upperclass student, usually a major in the department of the faculty member, was assigned as an assistant in the seminar.

Evaluations of the success and failure of the program went on throughout the first five years with librarians, faculty, assistants, and other students participating. The committee discovered that not all classes fit the expected pattern of research, discussion and writing, nor did all faculty adjust to exploring a new topic with freshmen. Most uneven of the evaluations, however, concerned the role of the student assistants.

For years the speech department had a policy of making classrooms and audio tape recorders available to students for rehearsal of their speeches. In 1973 the college equipped the speech classrooms with video recorders and cameras. While the staff of the department welcomed this teaching aid, there was genuine concern that the equipment would not hold up under the heavy hands of untrained students. As a result, a rehearsal period and the new equipment could not be used until trained operators were available. The library program was suggested as a means to train the operators. With library research required for every speech, the classroom and the library did come together. This solved the problem of trained assistant who could help students select topics, assist in research, and supervise the use of the new video equipment. The assistants served as tutors and operators during the preparation period for speeches.

After some discussion with a committee, the chair of the speech department was asked to work out a proposal with the reference librarian that would provide guidelines for all involved. Out of those discussions came a description of the speech tutor: 1) the speech department would select from its majors, minors, or debaters one student to serve as a tutor for each public speaking class; 2) These students would meet with the reference librarian for eight to ten weeks for one hour of instruction in using the card catalogue, the indexes, the guides, and other reference works. Each week they would be given a research problem to solve. In addition to the class work, each student would work one hour on the reference desk to assist students in their research; 3) Upon completion of the course each tutor was to receive $150 as an honorarium with the option of continuing to work on the reference desk for minimum wage for the remainder of the school year; and 4) The tutors' obligation to the speech department would consist of running the video equipment for rehearsals the night before speech rounds. With a schedule of fifteen to twenty minutes per speaker for recording, playback, and a brief critique, two tutors would work for three hours each rehearsal session and be paid at the minimum wage scale.

In the spring of 1974 the chair invited applications for the positions from students who had declared themselves as either majors or minors in speech. He selected two sophomores and two juniors for the positions and met with them two or three times to discuss speech criticism. In these sessions the students did some role palying trying to anticipate typical problems of first efforts in speaking. Loren Reid's book *Teaching Speech* was assigned for summer reading.

In September, 1974, these students met

with the speech faculty for a final session that included learning to run equipment, reviewing the principles of criticism, and discussing such details as working out a schedule for rehearsals, getting keys to the building, and getting paid. At the same time they were scheduled for the first meeting with the reference librarian.

In the weeks that followed, the faculty was gratified to see that the speech tutors took their responsibilities seriously. They worked out their schedules and met all rehearsals. An added benefit was the improvement in the content and delivery of the speeches. Furthermore, any fears about students working with students were quickly dispelled. The tutors became part of the routine in preparing to speak. The occasional complaint about a tutor being too picky or too demanding was more than offset by the comments about their helpfulness, sincerity, and availability. The tutors discovered some things too. They learned, for example, that undergraduates have no hesitation about calling teachers, be they faculty or peer, at all hours of the day and night.

By 1975 the experiment of bringing the library to the classroom and the classroom to the library was concluded. The final evaluation by Robert Wedgewood and James V. Jones representing the Council of Library Resources noted significant gains in the use of the library, increases in circulation and interlibrary loans, and additions to the professional staff of the library.[2]

They also noted the problem of making effective use of the student assistants, except in the case of the speech assistants. John Mark Tucker, in an article summarizing the final report, wrote that the success of the speech assistants could be attributed to the well built course design, the requirement that demanded the use of the library, and, most importantly, as Tucker concluded: *the assistant in speech actually serves as an upper division counselor, usually knowledgeable on a fundamental basis with a wide range of student interests. Naturally, the assistant's commitment is necessary to cement this relationship, but the key to meaningful interaction (that was not present in freshmen tutorials) is that the assistants were able to be of service in a broad range of areas. This observation has been borne out by students and assistants alike and is probably the result of personal relationships which may be seen as by-products of critique sessions. The fact that speech assistants could help in a number of areas made them more believable when they talked to students about library resources. Thus, for many students, bibliographic instruction has become a more practical and integral part of teaching and learning environment.*[3]

There are other factors that contributed to the success of the program. As one of the last, small, private, independent colleges for men, the 800 students live and play together as a close community. The daily interaction made such a program reasonable and natural. Then, too, the fact that all rehearsals were held in the classroom where the speeches were to be given and each classroom had video equipment in place eliminated the logistical problems of hauling it about.

Did the program continue? Now funded by the college, it has become a part of the beginning course.

Recently the president of the college called the speech chair and said *I have a letter here from one of your students in public speaking. He says the video equipment broke down last night and he didn't have his rehearsal. He goes on to say that he is a Political Science major who may someday be running for governor of the state and training in public speaking is important in his education. Why is it, he writes, 'that a college with as large an endowment as we have can't keep equipment operating? How shall I answer this young man?*

At that point the chair thought he detected a snicker from the former physics professor who more than once saw a scientific demonstrations collapse because of equipment failure.

"Tell him," the chair said, "we just have to try harder."

Endnotes

[1]"A Proposal to Increase the Effectiveness of the Library in the Educational Program of Wabash College," Lilly Library, Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana.

[2]Robert Wedgeworth and James V. Jones, "Evaluation of the Lilly Library, Wabash College, February 27 - March 1, 1974," Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana.

[3]John Mark Tucker, "An Experiment in Bibliographic Instruction at Wabash College," *College and Research Libraries*, May, 1977, p. 208.

EXTERNAL EVALUATION OF SMALL COLLEGE COMMUNICATION PROGRAMS

Richard W. Platt

These are not necessarily the best of times nor the worst of times for speech communication in higher education, but they come close. In recent years, departments in both large and small institutions have expanded their programs and experienced increased enrollments. On the other hand, departments are faced with increasing competition for scarce financial resources and with the prospect of sizeable declines in the enrollment pool. This means that from both a practical and an ethical point of view we must do all we can to ensure the quality and the marketability of communication programs and graduates. The key to achieving these goals is continuous and effective self-study.

Administration and faculty must cooperatively address issues of planning and evaluation in light of student needs. A division or department head has that responsibility. Too frequently the views of students, faculty, and administrators are biased and myopic. A broader and clearer perspective often can be gained through consultation with academics and professionals from outside an institution. In this paper, the focus will be upon the use of consultants as an element of self-study.

Marist College, the example used in this paper, is a small, private, liberal arts institution with an enrollment of 2,000 full-time equivalent students and a full-time faculty of eighty-six. The communiation program is a relatively large one with 456 majors, nine full-time and ten part-time faculty. It is the second largest major at the College.

The communication arts program developed in English in 1973 with fifty-seven students, three full-time and three part-time faculty members. An internship program began in 1974 with four or five placements during the year. In 1984, there were about 110 placements.

In 1978, just before the current president was hired, there were thirteen department heads reporting to an Academic Vice-President. During the new president's first year in office, and at his urging, a divisional structure was voted in by the faculty. Thus the Chair of Arts and Letters became one of five administrators reporting to the Academic Vice-President. The Division includes fine arts, communication arts, English, fashion design, modern languages, and music. In the mid-1970s a trend developed involving grant development, leadership assessment, and evaluation of programs. The trend included the use of external consultants. New programs and administrative structures resulted from the self-study.

Self-study is undertaken for various reasons. In his excellent book, *Self-Study Processes*, Kells places the purposes in two categories: *those having to do with the life of the institution or its programs; and those having to do with the use of the self-study results in an accreditation process.*[1] His assumption was that most self-study is related to accreditation and, therefore, externally rather than internally motivated. During the past four years at Marist grant money has brought three separate external consultants to campus in connection with program evaluation. In two cases grants to strengthen the communication program required it. In a third case funds were available for consultation on development of a new program in advertising.

In 1976 an internal self-study was carried out under the direction of the Academic Dean and implemented by department chairs. The focus then was upon evaluation and planning of the various academic programs.

In May, 1978, a team of consultants visited Marist for the purposes of institutional leadership assessment. Executive and middle management structures were studied as was the performance of the Board of Trustees. As a result, in 1979, a new president was appointed; he in turn restructured the executive leadership and moved to strengthen the role of the Board of Trustees in the operation of the College. In 1980 a new Academic Vice-President was hired. In 1981 divisional structure was implemented and chairpersons were appointed.

1978 was the first of a three year, $1,000,000, Title III federal grant to Marist under the Small Developing Institutions Program. Within it was $87,000 to strengthen communication arts. The money would allow consultants to be brought in to do program evaluation, planning, and implementation. Areas of focus would include curriculum, faculty development, hiring of new faculty, print and non-print library holdings, facilities, equipment, recruitment and retention, advisement, internships, and links to the world of professional communication.

The process of selecting consultants began. A Title III Activity Committee was established. Its membership included faculty in communication and business, the Chair of communication at the State University of New York College, New Paltz, the College Development Officer, local communication professionals, and a communication arts major. The Activity Committee decided that two consultants should be

brought in, one with a national reputation and one with administrative experience at an institution similar in size and character to Marist. Recommendations were solicited from the Executive Secretary of the Association for Communication Administration. Vitae were received and discussed and the committee decided to invite Herman Cohen, Professor at Pennsylvania State University and Joel Persky, Associate Professor and Chair of Communication Arts at The Colleges of New Rochelle/Iona.

For each consultation the visitor was sent a packet of relevant materials before the visit. Included were such documents as the college catalog and view book, a communication arts brochure, intership data, and relevant reports and proposals. A schedule was established to meet with administrators (e.g.: the Academic Vice-President and the Director of Learning Resources), faculty in communication arts and other related disciplines, and students. In addition, arrangements were made to visit physical facilities such as the Media Center, the theatre, and the Computer Center. Within a month subsequent to the visit, the consultants sent their written reports presenting their observations and recommendations. They also enclosed syllabi, brochures, and other materials requested in discussions with them. The reports were distributed, discussed, and integrated into ongoing program planning and development.

In November, 1978, Cohen visited the campus for two days. His was an overall view of the communiation arts program. Covering the same territory, Persky visited Marist for a long day in the same month. He returned for one more day six months later. The second visit provided the opportunity to assess what had been done during that six month period and allowed for updating and refinement of his recommendations. Utilizing the two consultants brought two different perspectives to the assessment process. Cohen was primarily a rhetorical and communication theorist from a large public institution with a large communication program of national reknown. Persky's background was in mass communication, he was an administrator at a small, Catholic, liberal arts institution with a communication program of regional stature.

The reports, as would be expected, were both similar and different. Both, however, assisted the program in strengthening, in planning, and in utilizing resources provided by the Title III grant.

One of the suggestions made by Persky was to explore the possibility of developing communication arts courses in advertising or duallisting courses in marketing offered in the business department. Encouraged by the success in this area at New Rochelle/Iona, the possibility was discussed of offering a program by the two departments.

In 1980 a new Title III proposal was submitted. Within it was a program activity to expand the business curriculum, including the development of an interdisciplinary major in marketing communications. The proposal was approved and another $1,000,000, three year grant period began in 1981. The activity was directed by the chairperson of the division of management studies who agreed to use some available funds to bring in a consultant with experience in administering an advertising program. By this time it had been decided that the program should be called advertising, and should be housed in arts and letters rather than management studies. Again, a consultant was recommended by the ACA. It was Robert C. Jeffrey, Dean of the College of Communication at the University of Texas in Austin. One of the majors at Texas is advertising which has an undergraduate enrollment of 850 students. Jeffrey visited Marist for two days in November, 1981. In his report Jeffrey reinforced the tentative decisions already made about the program and concurred with predictions for its potential in attracting students. He went on to make specific suggestions regarding curriculum, facilities and equipment, internships, and faculty hiring. Subsequent to Jeffrey's visit, a faculty member in advertising was hired to develop the program proposal, to teach in, and to administer it. The proposal was completed, approved by the division, and forwarded to the College Academic Affairs Committee. It will go to the faculty and eventually to the New York State Board of Higher Education for approval. It is expected to be established in 1985.

Using external consultants for evaluation and planning may be a matter of choice or requirement. If it is one of choice, it must be weighed in terms of advantages and disadvantages related to using internal sources. Miller's review in *The Assessment of College Performance*[2] highlights relevant issues. They can relieve evaluation burdens from internal personnel. However, they are limited by constraints of time and lack of contextual familiarity. Of evaluation of internal personnel (who more often do evaluation) Miller has this to say: *The Internal evaluator is familiar with program and staff, understands channels of communication within the institution and its larger community, is familiar with the details of the program, and may be able to integrate the evaluation into the life of the program. On the disadvantage side, this individual may not have the skills required for evaluation, may have a vested interest in the program, and may be overburdened with other duties.*[3] Given the choice a combination of both internal and external evaluation and planning may be effective in most cases.

If a consultant is to be brought in, Kells' descriptions are useful: *1) The subject matter consultant is the person with specific subject matter expertise or skills and adequate appropriate experience to enable him or her to propose specific answers to a problem, to test the effectiveness of a program, to design a needed element, or to give an expert opinion. 2) The process consultant is....engaged to assist a college or a program in finding the appropriate solution to their problem themselves. Process consultants have skills in group leadership, questioning, problem-solving techniques, change strategy and the like.*[4]

In the communication field, external process consultants are rarely used. However in some cases, especially where significant barriers among people exist, doing so could be worthwhile.

The following questions provide an overview of the process of selecting and using consultants:[5]

I. How to decide an external consultant

is needed

A. Is a program consultant required?

B. Is a program consultant an option for the circumstances?

C. Are adequate funds and internal support available to make effective use of a consultant?

D. What are the advantages of using an external consultant as opposed to internal personnel?

E. Is the circumstance one that calls for subject matter consultation or process consultation or both?

F. Can the circumstance be clearly specified to articulate what is needed?

II. How to select the proper consultant

A. What are the sources of recommendation? (e.g.: internal personnel, professional organizations, external colleagues).

B. Who will be responsible for the selection?

C. Does the consultant have the needed expertise and skills? (a vita should be examined and a telephone interview conducted).

D. Questions can be asked of others who have used the consultant: (1) did the consultant help you further articulate your circumstance without prematurely anticipating a solution? (2) did the consultant help identify resources and approaches within your situation which assisted after departure? (3) did you feel more capable of dealing with the problem after the consultant left? (4) in retrospect would you hire the same consultant again if you had it to do over again?

III. How to effectively use consultants

A. Make one person clearly responsible and accountable for the consultant's work.

B. Make sure the problem is clearly defined through internal self-study (NB: a multi-purposed approach will probably be most fruitful but each aspect must be clearly articulated).

C. Review expectations about what can and cannot be done. Keep a written record.

D. Appropriate data about the institution and about the program should be available before the visit (e.g.: catalogs, brochures, reports).

E. Relevant faculty and administrative staff should be identified for the consultant to meet with during his or her visit. Students should be involved. Physical sites (e.g.: media center, computer center, theatre) should be considered as should specific events (e.g.: class meetings, workshops, theatre productions).

F. Use consultant's time effectively. This requires carefully developed visitation schedules.

G. At the conclusion of his or her visit, the consultant may be asked to present an oral preliminary report to the faculty and other appropriate personnel.

H. Have a clear understanding of what evaluations and written reports are expected or required from the consultant. And within what time frame.

IV. How to communicate and use the results

A. Be certain of who should receive the consultant's written evaluation.

B. Evaluate the evaluation and produce an agenda for action based upon it. A covering document of the evaluation and agenda might be distributed with the consultant's report.

Continuous and effective self-study is imperative to ensure program quality and to fulfill professional responsibilities. External consultants are one means of assessment and assistance that may be required or chosen. When consultation is being considered, carefully analyze the needs and the system within which the person will operate. Given the decision to utilize external consultants, they must be selected and used with care. Such approaches can help overcome the problems and capitalize upon the opportunities with which administrators often are confronted.

Endnotes

[1]H. R. Kells, *Self-Study Processes: A Guide for Postsecondary Institutions* (Washington, D. C.; American Council on Education, 1980) p. 14.

[2]Richard I. Miller, *The Assessment of College Performance: A Handbook of Techniques and Measures for Institutional Self-Evaluation* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1979) pp. 272-73.

[3]*Ibid*, p. 273.

[4]Kells, *op. cit.* p. 83.

[5]An elaboration of questions from P. E. Pottinger, "Some Comments Upon the Effective use of Consultant and External Advisors," Paper presented to a project directors meeting of the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, Boston: 1975), cited in Miller, pp. 273-274.

ANATOMY OF A SELF-STUDY

Jane Kennedy Dale

A self study is defined as the process by which members of an academic community evaluate the components of its programs. It involves the gathering of data, discussion, and the presentation of a written report. This paper is a chronicle of the self study in the Department of Communications, Speech and Theatre at Fairleigh Dickinson University.

Fairleigh Dickinson is a private university with an enrollment of 20,000 students. The Department of Communications, Speech and Theatre had 200 undergraduate majors and six full-time faculty at the time of the study. It is the only department of its kind in the University which meant that it did not have to consult with departments on other campuses of the University in order to achieve a uniform approach to the process of self study.

In order to help meet the needs of the coming years in higher education, the President of the University, through informal channels, asked the University Senate to undertake a self study. A Senate committee, the Academic Standards Committee, developed and proposed guidelines for the self evaluation of all programs university wide. These guidelines were proposed and passed by the Senate in May, 1980. At a meeting in December, 1980, the Liberal Arts Educational Policies Committee established a time schedule for the college. The minutes of this meeting, which became the unofficial guideline for faculty, were sent to all chairpersons and program coordinators.

In these minutes the committee recommended the following schedule:

February 1, 1981 - all departments to initiate a self study

April 1, 1981 - each department to submit to the LAEPC a draft outline of its self study and the names and vitae of the proposed consultants who indicated their availability

April 30, 1981 - the Dean, the LAEPC, and the department to make a final decision on the selection of a consultant for each department

May 15, 1981 - the department to notify the consultant of his or her appointment. The LAEPC to review drafts of each department's self study

September 21, 1981 - final date for the on-site visit of the consultants

December 1, 1981 - completed drafts of the self study to be sent to LAEPC and Dean

February 1, 1982 - LAEPC to complete its review of departmental self study reports

March 15, 1982 - completed self studies to be sent to the office of the Academic Vice President

The Senate Resolution clearly and frequently requested that the activity surrounding the self study be viewed by all participants (i.e., departments, administration, and consultants), as one of collegiality as opposed to one of investigation. The attitude was to be one of working together for academic excellence. The fact is, however, that even under the most ideal circumstances, a self study raises the stress level of the participants. If this fact is acknowledged and discussed openly by those involved, many potential problems can be alleviated, thus creating a better climate for an atmosphere of collegiality.

Aspects of a self study are stressful because the participants naturally wonder about the final results of the study. Questions about hidden agendas, relationship to the power structure, or potential prejudices of consultants were thought of but these thoughts and the close scrutiny which accompanies an evaluation result in different attitudes and opinions in different types of people. Self-awareness and discussion with others can diminish the agony and soul searching which the threatening aspects of a self study can cause. The more aware of stress and the more realistic the participants are during this period, the more positive are the attitudes toward the entire process. The communications department was secure in the knowledge that its curriculum was appropriate for the needs of the department and the campus. Nonetheless, there were expectations that the results of the whole process would produce a halcyonic office environment, productive colleagues, and a model curriculum throughout the department. Needless to say, this did not occur, nor could it have occurred, given the state of the department and the college at that time.

Early in the Spring semester, 1981, each department formulated a schedule to fit the time frame set by the Senate and the LAEPC. Both formal and informal discussions were held. Accordingly, the Chair of the Communications, Speech and Theatre Department requested the following data be submitted by February 1, 1981: 1) updated vitae from all department faculty; 2) updated syllabi for all courses from faculty; 3) reports on specific areas or programs, i.e.; a) a report on the internship program; b) a report on the Media Center; and c) a report on the Radio Station.

Along with this request the Chair set March 15, 1981, as the deadline for submitting the rationale for each course taught in the department. If two faculty, as in the case of Public Speaking, taught the same course,

they were asked to collaborate on the rationale by answering the following questions: 1) What groups of students does the course serve? 2) Does the course content overlap with other courses in the department? 3) How often is the course offered? 4) Has enrollment increased or decreased? 5) Are there documents revealing the evolvement of this course? 6) How many credits are offered for the course? 7) What department, college or state requirements does the course fulfill? 8) At what level is the course taught? 9) Is the course cross-listed? If so, with what department and why? 10) Are there prerequisites for the course? If so, what are they and what prupose do the prerequisites serve? 11) Are the listed objectives of the course viable at this time? 12) Does the course content permit the realization of the course objective? 13) What instructional materials are used? Can they be improved? 14) Do the assignments aid in fulfilling the course objectives? 15) Are the required facilities and equipment readily available for the course? 16) What are the costs related to offering this course? (staff, rental of films, use of facilities) 17) Is there an additional fee for the course? Is it appropriate? And is the amount of the fee sufficient? 18) How is the course organized i.e.; are there lectures, labs, field trips? 19) In what ways has the course been beneficial to communication majors and other students?

The Chair also requested a list from the library of all titles of periodicals related to each of the disciplines in the department (speech, theatre, journalism, the media, and advertising and public relations). The final library report contained the number of books in each area, an analysis of circulation figures of books by subject for the school year 1980-1981, and an analysis of reference questions answered by subject area for 1980-1981. In addition, the Chair asked each member of the department to assess and report to the department on the quality of the holdings in the library in the areas of specialization. These assessments, however, were not included in the final draft of the self study, perhaps because they were negative.

The Senate guidelines recommended that each department select two candidates as consultants. The name s of the consultants were sent to the Dean of the college, listed in order of the department's preference, with resumes and other pertinent documentation of their qualifications to review the program. The guidelines stated that the consultants should have appropriate teaching and consulting experience and be familiar with the career potential of the discipline. In addition, the guidelines further stated that the consultants should have no personal or professional bias related to the University or the department. The faculty felt that the consultants had the power to change the course of the department. Neither the deans nor the chairpersons were certain about how much weight the administration would give to a consultant's report.

One of the first decisions the department had to make was whether there should be one or two consultants. Since the disciplines in the department included speech, theatre, media, journalism, advertising and public relations, the department decided to ask for two consultants: one to consider communications and one to consider speech and theatre.

The department began the search by asking each faculty member to select and submit the names of qualified persons. Both the ACA and ATA were contacted for the names. Each responded with the names of four qualified persons. After all the names of candidates had been submitted to the chairperson, he contacted eight candidates asking for a vitae. Some responded and some did not. The candidate who was chosen as the speech and theatre consultant was nationally known and qualified.

The Dean had the option, according to the guidelines, to reject the recommendation of the department. If the Dean rejected a department's recommendation, he or she was required to give a reason for the rejection, and could then request another recommendation from the department. In the departments in which the Dean exercised this option, the atmosphere of collegiality was substantially diminished.

Approximately a month before the on-site visit each consultant was sent a packet of materials which consisted of the University Catalogue, the Self Study Report, and a map of the campus.

When completed, the Self Study was approximately two hundred fifty pages and contained the following: statement of University mission; statement of department mission; University organizational chart; description of the curriculum; statement on student advisement; library report; comments on the interaction of the department and the community; comments on issues and proposals related to the growth of the department; 1982-1983 projected class schedule; sample student check sheets showing course requirements for the different majors within the department; planning report: Three Year Liberal Arts Projection; 1980-1981 enrollment figures for all courses in the department; list of department and student sponsored theatre productions with attendance figures 1973-1981; theatre budget 1973-1981; floor plan of existing theatre; architect's report on projected conversion of old gym into a theatre; media center report; audio visual aids report; floor plans of department offices; journalism workshop report (including report on student newspaper); university analysis of average student credit load 1975-1980; university average class size 1975-1980; rationale for each course taught in the department; university full-time equivalent enrollment 1975-1981; report on AM and FM radio stations; material on communication science course; material on advertising design as a secondary major; statement on the prospects for a graduate program; vitae of all faculty in the department; and comments on current problems related to the curriculum as reflected in department minutes. In addition, a scale model of the proposed theatre was on display in the department.

The communication consultant was on campus for two days; the speech and theatre consultant visited for one day. During the visit each consultant met privately with the Dean, the Provost, the Dean of Students, the director of the internship program in the College of Business Administration, and the director of the campus learning center. The speech and theatre consultant toured the theatre facilities and met with the personnel of the campus television station, the library,

the audio visual department, both the AM and FM stations, the theatre, and the fine arts department. Each consultant had the opportunity to meet and talk with students. This occured formally in classroom visits and, for the speech and theatre consultant, informally backstage during rehearsal. During the visit all full-time and some part-time faculty members met with the consultant privately as well as in a group. During the private visits the faculty were encouraged to be honest and open in expressing attitudes and opinions. Some faculty were honest and openly critical, while others were not.

At the end of the on site visit, as required by the Senate resolution on evaluation, the consultants delivered a preliminary report orally to the Department in the presence of the Dean. At this meeting, the faculty and the Dean were given the opportunity to ask questions and to clarify impressions, thereby supplementing the written self study.

After the on site visit the consultants were required to submit a written report within fifteen days to the department, with copies to the Dean, the Provost, the Liberal Arts Educational Policies Committee and the Academic Vice President.

A second phase of the process began when the consultant's written report was received by the department. Since these reports suggested specific changes in the curriculum and in the leadership of the department, the faculty could begin to take action and to prepare a reaction report. In the communications department they elected a new chair and set about the task of revising the curriculum. A written report was submitted to the Dean in due time.

The concept and practice of self evaluation and of using external consultants is valuable. The process forces a department to gather data and to examine itself; it permits the department to seek the wisdom and expertise of colleagues in the field; and it allows a department to act rather than react to the changing times.

CONDUCTING A DEPARTMENTAL REVIEW

Joseph W. MacDoniels

The small college has the same need to evaluate programs as larger institutions but faces particular difficulty on several grounds. First, the range of programs may be such that the funds or energy required to do a complete evaluation are inadequate. Second, the program of the small college is intended to reflect the particular needs and objectives of the college and may not compare well on standards of performance designed for larger institutions or for institutions constituted for different purposes. Third, many programs found in the small college--and speech communication may serve as the clearest example--represent diverse fields and only one perspective, one area, or one approach may be the focus of the small college department. As result of these conditions, outside evaluation or evaluation against standardized profiles probably is neither accurate nor informative and is usually too expensive.

Hope College has developed a method of departmental review which allows for regular review at a cost which can be tailored to the purposes of the college and the standards of the disciplines represented. While this method is not without its limitations, it has proven effective. What follows is a description of the Hope College departmental review, the philosophy, procedures, and the outcomes which can be documented along with the reservations or criticisms which have been expressed. It is the purpose of this paper to offer a model which could form the basis for similar reviews at comparable institutions.

The Departmental Review

Hope College instituted a program of departmental reviews in which the academic vice president and representatives of the Status Committee meet with the chairperson of each department to review each program in the college. The procedure was hurried but it was felt that the results were beneficial to both the departments and administrators. As a result of this experience, the procedure for departmental reviews was modified and a systematic schedule of some six reviews each year was proposed, allowing a review of each of the twenty-four departments every four years.

Under the revised procedures, each department conducts an extensive self-study, prepares a written report, and makes a presentation to a review committee comprised of the president, provost, administartive vice-president, deans, and two faculty representatives. The review committee is responsible for assimilation of the data produced, inquiry into further information, and response to the department in the form of a written summary.

The advantage of the procedure as described is that an extensive review is conducted in a systematic manner which is free of the defensiveness such reviews often create. A principle disadvantage is that departments do not have benefit of critical evaluation or systematic planning of colleagues outside the college. Experience to date, at Hope College at least, is that departments are willing and able to take larger disciplinary views in their self study and report to the review committee.

Objectives of the Departmental Review: Three principle objectives of the departmental review are stated: *-to give encouragement and assistance to departments in planning for their future so that departmental programs will continue to meet the needs of students and will continue to contribute to the realization of the mission of the College; -to acquaint members of the administration with those plans and with the resources--human, physical, and financial--needed to implement them; and -to assist in the process of selecting a chairperson for the department.*[1]

The first objective is a gentle way of indicating the need for systematic self study by departments which will result in: a) recognition of applicable professional standards in a discipline, b) evaluation against such applicable standards, c) comparison of departmental performance with that of similar departments in comparable institutions, d) evaluation of standards of teaching and scholarship within the department, and e) assessment of the departmental program and practices relative to the purpose and mission of the college. There is clear indication[2] that the principle benefit of the review process is contained in the self study.

The second objective merges with the ongoing institutional planning. It is important to note that while the academic officers of the college may have a good understanding of the academic departments and programs, other college administrators may not. Thus, the review allows the financial administrator along with the head of the Academic Affairs Board to become aware of the practices, plans, and problems of each department. This is the area of the review procedure where the greatest potential for creating new understandings and/or a change of policy is found. The third objective is less clear in its practical application than in its intent. It is suggested that the departmental plans and priorities, as

well as the skills, style, or philosophy desired in the chairperson, will be considered in the departmental review with the result that the preferred qualifications for a new chairperson will be identified and will guide the selection. It is acknowledged that this is a secondary benefit of the departmental review and seems to have only marginal influence, if any, on the appointment process.

The Review Process: the departmental review is accomplished in two parts: a departmental self study followed by presentation of the results to a review committee.

The department begins the review process by initiating a comprehensive self study a semester or more before the actual review. Six questions structure the content of the self study which is to result in a document to be submitted to the review committee two weeks prior to the review. The questions addressed in the self study include: *1) What is and what should be the department's role in the College? 2) What are the department's strengths and weaknesses in regard to: a. teaching; b. operational policy and administration; c. curriculum; and d. research? 3) What is the standing of the department in comparison to similar departments in the Great Lakes Colleges Association and other comparable institutions? 4) Which new directions in teaching and research should be developed within the next five years? 5) Which resources and/or facilities will be needed to pursue those new directions? and 6) How do the future plans of the department bear directly on the appointment of the chairperson?*[3]

The Provost's office supplies information to support the self study in the form of the departmental reports and budgetary information of the preceding four years; the reports of reviews by the Curriculum Committee, enrollment statistics; and current faculty vitae. Comparative data on GLCA colleges also is made available.

The chairpersons of departments which have completed the departmental review indicate that the self study, while demanding and time consuming, is the most valuable part of the procedure. In general the departments set as a standard for comparison an ideal department. The departments also felt that the study allowed direct, open discussion of issues which are often neglected, if not avoided. The focus of the self study in the departments polled following a review seemed to be toward the future and toward program improvement rather than toward defending programs or complaining about existing conditions.

The question which most departments felt was difficult to answer had to do with comparison to other GLCA colleges. Departments either made categoric comparison (i.e., the program is better, different, etc.) or programmatic comparisons (i.e., size of faculty, number of courses, courses themselves, etc.)

The Review: Following completion of the self study, each department presents a report to the review committee. The committee is composed of the President of the college, the Provost, the two divisional deans, the Vice President for Business and Finance, the chairperson of the Academic Affairs Board and a faculty representative from the Academic Affairs Board who represents the division of the department being reviewed. Thus, a committee of seven is empaneled to conduct the review. The presentation to the review committee is made by the department chairperson as a talk through of the written report with primary reference to the appended documents which amplify or supply evidence in support of the points made in the report. The chairpersons also indicate that a significant portion of their presentation is used to describe decisions, dilemmas, or choices between alternative policy or program options which are confronted through the self study and to elicit a response, guidance, or policy position from the review committee on the best course to follow. These presentations are made with the expectation that through the discussions or questions during the review or in the follow-up report guidance will be forthcoming.

The review itself is about two hours in length. Most chairpersons report that the presentations are well received. Some felt the review committee was interested and responsive to the presentation, asking good questions, and creating a pleasant, nondefensive, adversarial climate, the response was minimal and the feedback almost nonexistent.

Following the review, the review committee is charged with responsibility to prepare a written report to be sent to the department shortly after the conclusion of the review process. If indicated, the review team could be available to meet with the entire department to discuss the final report.

Evaluation of the Departmental Review: It seems appropriate to include some discussion of the pros and cons of the departmental review with an attempt to indicate the consensus on or intimation of particular values or problems in the process. It is intended that this discussion produce some guidelines, recommendations or cautions which would be helpful to other institutions conducting similar procedures.

1. The President, Provost and other administrative officers of the college indicate their desire to have a current, detailed understanding of each department through the review procedure. Departments were in agreement that, as one chairperson put it, "The people who mattered read the materials and were quite receptive to the presentation." There was a general feeling that the situation which the departments faced was made more clear and that there was a greater understanding and appreciation for the departments.

2. Without doubt, the most beneficial results derived from the self study. Virtually every department reported that they were challenged to identify their strengths and to present a plan to resolve weaknesses. It was felt they were free to do this without placing the department in jeopardy. Many departments indicated that they discovered dilemmas in program development (i.e., whether to develop further the accounting program) which were never fully discussed in the department or that input from outside the department was needed before planning could continue. The review process served as the nudge to give analysis and planning a priority within a department.

3. Concrete needs were understood and acted upon in planning and decision making at the administrative level. Two particular types of needs emerged as being best under-

stood and most promptly acted upon: staffing --particularly part-time or interim positions --and capital. Allocation of space and equipment needed in the offices of the departments topped the list of items mentioned by depart mental chairpersons as the items to which they felt the committee was most understanding to which action came as a result of the review.

4. The attitude throughout the review was one of information, planning, and implementation of changes which result in improvement and increased effectiveness. This attitude is not inherent in the model, but was the result of a considered effort on the part of some or all of the review team. One chairperson, who had been involved in earlier reviews, spoke of the assurance he received from the provost that this review would not be a hostile, accusatory investigation as in the past. It may be the experience from the earlier review sensitized participants in this review process or it may be a belief that that the nondefensive atmosphere encouraging self evaluation, planning, and collaboration would result in a more positive outcome from the review formed the basis for the climate reported. Whatever the reason, the provost and the chairpersons involved were in agreement that the attitude was the correct one.

5. The role of the divisional dean in the review process may not be appropriately defined. The dean as a member of the review committee was, in several instances, receiving reports on policy or practice which he had, in close supervision with the department under review, helped to formulate. One suggestion was that the deans join the department in presentation of the report and that other administrative personnel fill their place on the review committee. One chairperson indicated that little was presented that the dean did not already know but that it was good for the president, provost, and deans to be together hearing it.

6. The most pronounced criticism of the procedure was the lack of response from the committee. Some chairpersons felt that there were good questions asked during the review and helpful comments made, while others felt the committee was not responsive enough during the presentation. All the chairpersons agreed that the summary report from the review committee was inadequate and too long in coming. One comment dealt with asking questions but getting no answers from the review process. As a result departmental actions were made on the same assumption as before the review. Another chair indicated that, while there were changes following the review, in the absence of any feedback from the committee, there was no evidence that the review was the determining factor. Another felt it was more a public relations effort than anything.

Summary

The departmental review process seems to be effective in creating awareness and support for continued self-evaluation and planning. The best outcomes seem to be linked to the self study and to the general review procedure engendered. The constructive results follow from quality efforts to have the review process be effective. While outside consultation might provide some perspectives which are more particularly oriented to the discipline, the procedure seems to produce findings which are valid.

The greatest concern is to insure that the dialogue which both the procedure's philosophy and practice seem to encourage be balanced as well as ongoing. In the absence of feedback to the department, efforts in the most beneficial phase of the process--the self study--may decline. Other review models may be more intense in their emphasis on feedback and follow-up. It is in this area that careful planning, solid commitment, and good will must be emphasized if the procedure is to be both successful and complete.

Endnotes

[1]Hope College Memorandum, December 19, 1979 from David Marker (Provost) to departmental chairpersons.

[2]Interview, Provost Marker, 1982.

[3]Memorandum, 1979.

APPROACHES TO THE BASIC CURRICULUM IN SMALL COLLEGE DEPARTMENTS

Roger Smitter and Joseph W. MacDoniels

This paper examines a sample of small college speech communication programs with several questions in mind: Does a consistency exist across the required curricula in speech communication? Do curricular patterns reveal an organizing principle for what constitutes a major in speech communication? Do current requirements for a speech communication major at small colleges suggest an optimum model for major requirements?

Such an analysis seems especially appropriate as small colleges face the enrollment and financial uncertainties of the next decade. Enrollment pressures will demand that small colleges carefully examine their commitment of resources to faculty positions, the single largest budget item in most small colleges. Course offerings constitute the single most important factor in determining the need for faculty.

As enrollments decline, FTE measures will be looked at carefully. The pressure in speech communication departments, as in other departments, will be to teach those classes which have high enrollments. Student interest in courses suited to career preparation may conflict with faculty desire to offer the sometimes less immediately attractive liberal arts courses which have been shown to have lasting value.

Compounding the problem is expansion of the communication field in many directions. New topics appear in the interest groups of professional associations. Publishers continue to add to the proliferation of topic areas. Development of the necessary expertise in these areas (as well as the analysis of their place in traditional liberal arts education) requires institutional support at a time when such resources cannot be counted on.

The exchange of information about curricular requirements among faculty at small schools is difficult. The focus on research at professional meetings often leaves questions of curricular design unanswered. Few consortia exist to bring faculty in small college programs together.

Two recent studies by Manning and Buzza tabulated data on speech communication programs within two Midwest consortia of small colleges. Neither, however, looked at specific course offerings or requirements for a major. This paper goes beyond those efforts to look at what is required of speech communication majors at small schools.

Procedure

Recent catalogs of sixty-one schools with enrollments below 3000 or with fewer than six full-time faculty in speech communication were examined. Course requirements listed for a speech communication were recorded and categorized based on course title and, when necessary, by course description. In the case of combined speech communication and theatre departments, only those theatre courses required for the speech communication major were included in the analysis. All required courses were tabulated under broad headings such as public speaking or introduction to media.

Initially, the analysis was to include fifteen schools randomly selected from each of the four areas represented by the regional speech communication associations. However, few liberal arts schools with speech communication programs were found in the West while an abundance of such schools appeared in the Midwest. As a result, those areas were represented with eight and twenty-three schools respectively in the analysis. The other two regions were represented by fifteen schools each, although the East had several schools with an almost exclusive focus on media studies.

It is important to remember that the data used in the analysis are at least two steps removed from the experience an undergraduate has in the classroom. Catalog titles and descriptions are at best snapshots in time of what the colleges offer. Course syllabi and the day-to-day class activities may be something different in emphasis and content from what is described in a catalog. Short of collecting syllabi and perhaps even visiting each campus, however, the method does reveal what colleges at least announce as requirements for the essential curriculum in speech communication.

Results

A presentation of the entire list of required courses and alternatives would be far too much data. Table I summarizes those courses which were most frequently required or offered as options from which students could chose.

It is worth noting that the average number of courses required per department was approximately five, representing twelve to fifteen hours of a typical twenty-eight to thirty-two hour major.

Observations and Conclusions

The data presented here raise important questions about undergraduate education in speech

communication at the small college. Further, the nine observations and the conclusions offered here should be considered by faculty at small colleges to be the basis for opening a discussion on the appropriateness and effectiveness of speech communication offerings.

1. The results suggest undergraduate majors across small college departments are not equivalent or even similar. A communication student at one school may be required to have extensive work in media (and perhaps little else) while at another school students have only one requirement in mass communication but an abundance of courses in theatre.

2. No common denominator exists across programs at small colleges. Not only are majors likely to be different, there is no common sense course, let alone sequence of courses, which exists as a requirement at the colleges sampled. Even the most frequently occurring requirement, public speaking, was demanded of all students at fewer than half of the schools sampled.

3. Introductory courses are not comparable across schools. Many, but not all programs, require an introductory course in the field. However, these courses do not share any significant level of similarity. Some are heavily oriented to presentation skills, some to theory, and some to a sampling of topics within the speech field.

Whether this diversity is a symptom or cause of the problems identified in conclusions one and two cannot be answered here. However, all three observations raise a major issue for discussion. In a gathering of 100 graduating speech communication majors from 100 different small colleges, fewer than 50% would have a single course in common. The highest level of commonality would center on a public speaking course.

Is it not reasonable to expect a higher level of commonality of preparation for all students majoring in communication? Another question is, of course, whether this commonality should be based on presentation skills or something else within the field.

4. A number of schools require both speech communication and theatre courses while others avoid theatre altogether. Based on the course descriptions, no programs attempted to integrate the two fields through a single course.

These two fields have a long history of coexistance. The fact that combined programs continue to exist suggests a connection which goes beyond tradition. Yet the lack of an integrative course anywhere in the sample raises a serious question. Do speech and theatre possess a sufficient amount of similarity to warrent their continued curricular coexistance on the small college campus? If it exists, what are the roots of such a similarity and would those roots suggest the appropriate organizing concept for both speech and theatre surricula? Are programs without theatre components shortchanging speech communication majors and vice versa?

5. The eight courses which are most often required suggest at least a preliminary core of courses for an essential curriculum for a major. Even without an examination of catalogs of years past, the courses seem to be highly traditional ones.

Does this core reflect a useful adherance to liberal arts traditions or does it reveal a lack of information about developments in the field? Does a simple frequency count of required courses provide sufficient grounds for suggesting what courses might make up the best list of requirements?

6. Few upper division courses are required. If mass communication courses are removed from consideration, virtually no departments have courses sequenced in a hierarchical form. Only ten programs surveyed required any sort of upper division theory course or directed study. Little similarity existed among these courses. The list suggests no clear hierarchical structure to requirements.

Why do the majority of departments not require an upper level theory course of all students? A related question also arises: what should be the focus of such a course if it were required?

7. The data suggest that small college departments do not require students to take courses in organizational communication, public relations, or any newly developed topics within the speech communication field. Tracks and even separate majors in these topics are appearing at large institutions, however. While not necessarily a negative evaluation of speech communication programs at small schools, this observation does suggest that such schools may not be changing as rapidly as programs at bigger schools. Also, what role does the liberal arts tradition play if such requirements are merited?

8. A surprise, given the general pattern of presentational speaking courses across the colleges reviewed, is the frequency with which mass communication appeared as a requirement.

Catalogs, of course, seldom reveal why a course is offered. Do requirements in mass media arise from a recognition of the impact of media on society or are they a carry-over from the traditional speech department interest in radio of twenty years ago? If the requirement grows out of a recognition of the powerful role media plays in society, why are so few additional requirements in mass media used to follow up the introductory course?

9. Finally, these findings suggest that presentational speaking is the primary organizing concept for undergraduate majors at small colleges. It is the one constant that runs through most, although not all, of the most frequently occurring requirements for undergraduate majors.

The issue raised here is worthy of a great deal of attention. Does it mean that speech communication at the small college is an applied discipline, not overly concerned with theory? Do the requirements mean students learn a set of specific skills rather than theoretic principles for understanding speech communication in all its ramifications? If this is the case, how does such an applied approach fit the liberal arts tradition of most small schools?

Recommendations

Clearly the topic could bear a good deal more research. College catalogs are rich with information about course offerings, faculty preparation, and requirements. Yet, the purpose of this paper was to provide a catalyst for thought, debate, reflection, and, finally action as small colleges face an uncertain decade. In this light, the paper ends with recommendations.

1. Representatives of small college programs need to conceptualize essential theoretic objectives which are consistent across all departments. Professionals need to agree that a certain set of necessary concepts and skills exist which all students of communication should know or develop regardless of the college they attend.

This recommendation raises many broad issues, not the least of which is the question of what is the field. Nonetheless, the time is right to assert what should be the essential purpose in a program of study for undergraduate students. In doing so, communication faculty can define for themselves, as well as for deans and other administrators, the field which they represent at their institutions.

2. With the essential theoretic objectives identified, several required courses that would intorduce, define, or fulfill those essential objectives should follow. Faculty should recommend such a common core of requirements that all majors enrolled at any small college should take. These courses become what is a minimal essential requirement for maintaining an undergraduate major on a campus.

3. Once identified, such a core of courses could be supported by a standard set of optional courses that could give students flexibility.

Taken together the results of these three recommendations could be to define a minimum necessary curriculum for a small college department. The value in such an effort can be seen when planning for course offerings, hiring faculty, and, most importantly, when arguing for money and staff during budget and enrollment crunches.

The three major recommendations will have several side benefits. Schools will move a step closer to uniformity in course titles and, perhaps, even in course description. Also, the discussion may generate a debate on the relationship between teaching theory and teaching skills in speech communication. Relationships to other academic disciplines also may be explored. Any discussion of an essential curriculum will have the advantage of putting colleagues in touch with each other.

Summary

This paper has attempted to provide an overview of the curricula found in small college departments across the country. The quest was for an emerging consensus of what undergraduate requirements on small campuses have in common. Little agreement about requirements was found.

However, within this diversity is a common thread focused on oral presentation skills. The validity of this focus needs to be examinec and debated in greater depth.

This paper also makes several recommendations which could strengthen undergraduate education in speech communication. It is important that the information presented in this paper be used to strengthen the field and to assist small college faculty in planning a curriculum and in presenting a case for programs to administrators.

References

Bonnie W. Buzza, "Speech and Theatre Programs in Two Midwest Consortia," Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association convention, Washington, D.C., November, 1983.

Helen Manning, "Comparing Ourselves to Our Peers and Competition," Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association convention, Louisville, November, 1982.

Table 1

Summary of Required Courses and Alternatives in Small College Speech Communication Departments

Generic Course Title	Departments Requiring Course For Major	Departments Using Course as Option For Major
Public Speaking	25	3
Survey Course	20	3
Mass Media Introduction	14	4
Oral Interpretation	12	9
Persuasion	11	4
Argumentation and Debate	11	6
Interpersonal Communication	11	2
Voice and Diction	11	0

DIRECTING THE COMBINED SPEECH AND COMPOSITION COURSE: A PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVE

RayLene Tapia

Marianne Moore, in a discussion with Howard Nemerov, Robert Graves, and others concerning the difficulties of teaching poetry, recited one of her very short poems which she said "is not too deep--rather self-encouraging:"

If you will tell me why the fen
Appears impassable, I then
Will tell you why I think that I
Can get across it if I try.[1]

The problems encountered in teaching the combined speech and composition course present, as Moore would say, a fen. This paper will attempt to demonstrate how to get across it.

One of the first obstacles one encounters involves the organizational structure of a particular college or university. Some structures (note the use of the word structure--not administrators--although the same certainly might be said of administrators) are more supportive of the combined efforts of speech communication and composition personnel than are others. If, for example, both the speech and composition courses exist within the same division and/or school, there is a better chance that they can be successfully coordinated than if they exist in separate divisions or schools. When a director must coordinate the efforts of people not only in separate departments, but also separate divisions and schools, there may be a confusion of goals, efforts, and authority. A confusion of authority may be the most idfficult to overcome. Six of those involved in teaching the speech fundamentals course at Northwest Missouri State University, for example, are from other departments. Four of those also are from separate schools. Beyond the obvious and ordinary difficulties of finding a common meeting time, or establishing common objectives and motivating ideas, there can be more treacherous problems when the adm'nistrative sturcture is not complementary. Should a personnel problem arise with an instructor in the speech department, the course director can deal with the problem; if a personnel problem arises with an instructor outside the speech department or the school, the director may find the waters muddy indeed.

This is not to suggest that if a problem arises the coordinator cannot simply go to him or her and together work toward a solution. But often the instructor involved realizes that the coordinator has no power over him/her and, thus, effectively can ignor the any suggestions. So, the coordinator has to choose between the dean or division head concerned and talk with one or both who may then talk with the problem instructor. This is not to suggest that problems cannot be worked out across divisions or schools; however, given a complex set of circumstances, they can be more difficult, and the coordinator may wind up in the center of the issue. If an institution is considering implementing a course which coordinates the efforts of people across departments, divisions, or schools, recognize this as a possible obstacle.

Whether or not one has an administrative structure complementary to combining basic speech and composition, the following suggestions may prove useful. Begin the merger with instructors who want to be involved in such an undertaking. Do not use whatever power or influence one has to force people to into such a program. It is well-known that when people are put in a position of doing something they are not really committed to--perhaps, even philosophically opposed to--the project itself is affected.

For a basic speech course to be coordinated with a composition course, the time and effort of both disciplines are demanded. Instructors cannot go into the classroom at a scheduled time and teach the session the way it was taught before the combining. The teachers need to be well acquainted with the course objectives and to try to complement those objectives with material, assignments, and activity that can truly be called co-ordinated. The people involved must be committed to the effort of dovetailing their course with that of another because they will most likely be rewarded in the classroom rather than by other means.

To those who might become directors of a course combining basic speech and composition--a bit of advice. As director, do not allow yourself to become the sounding board for every petty grievance an instructor might have with his/her partner. If a team begins to suffer from differences in style, perceived preparation differences, perceived differences in commitment, etc., do not become the central gossip and gripe station. Encourage instructors to acknowledge their disagreements or disappointments to the person with whom they are working, or listen to disputes with both instructors present. The morale of all participants and the success of the program itself can be undermined by perpetual complaints.

These few suggestions are humble answers to complex issues, but they may present enough advice to enable a program to survive.

Endnote

[1]Marianne Moore, "Poetry--for Whom?", *The Writer's World*, Elizabeth Janeway, Ed., St. Louis: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969 p. 334.

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INTERFACING OF ENGLISH AND SPEECH IN A BASIC COURSE

Marion Sitzmann

This paper suggests for small colleges an innovative course that combines the teaching of English composition and speech. At the outset, one may ask: 1) Why is there a need for such a course in the curriculum? and 2) Who would benefit from such a course?

The answer to the first question is implicit in the demographics concerning high school graduates. Between 1979 and 1994, the eighteen-year-old population in the United States will decline by 26%, from 4.3 to 3.2 million.[1] Although the decline will be felt in all areas of the country, in the North Central and Northwest it could be as high as 32% to 40%. Such a marked decline in potential students could result in drastic faculty cuts in smaller colleges and, as a result, force a limited faculty to combine certain courses, such as English composition and speech. Another, almost antithetical, rationale for such a combined course derives from the need for a flexible curriculum that provides elective courses to enhance a student's marketability without sacrificing the concentration in the major field of study. There also may be a greater need in the curriculum for interships to provide practical experience for jobs. It seems almost axiomatic that in times of scarcity students must view their degrees as marketable commodities. Although such pragmatism may arouse the ire of many in academe, the demographics should temper pure idealism.

Who would benefit from such a combined course? The bright students. The less-gifted students still would need rigorous courses in the basics of English composition and speech. This combined offering, however, would free up three hours for an elective course or an internship.

Is there any sound philosophical basis for such a combined course in English composition and speech? From the time of Aristotle to well beyond the 18th century, there was little distinction made between the art of writing and the art of speaking; both came under the discipline of rhetoric. The rules that governed the one governed the other. Although the classical Greek and Roman manuals of rhetoric had subordinated rhetoric to the art of speaking, the art of writing had been part of rhetoric from its beginning.

To the Ancients rhetoric was an art involving a five-stage process of composing. This five-part pedagogical design, as exemplified by Cicero's *De Inventione*, provides a practical approach to writing and speaking.[2] Three of these stages, invention, arrangement, and style, applied both to writing and speaking. The last two stages, memory and delivery, later evolved into the mere mechanics of elocution.

Classical rhetoric was inherently prescriptive; it presupposed that one could learn to compose successfully--either a speech or composition--by systematically following several stages outlined by the manuals of classical rhetoricians. The prescriptive process assumes that ideas are clearly formulated and then expressed in words. This process differs significantly from today where writing is often viewed as an exercise in self-expression or an exercise in discovering ways to know. Today's students are encouraged to write by stream of consciousness; they are taught to find a personal, comfortable writing style unshackled by conventions. Speech, too, has become unconventional; it no longer stresses prescriptive methods, but rather allows for a complete freedom of expression.[3]

If a teacher wishes to return to a Classical approach to writing and speaking, how could the theories of invention, arrangement, and style be taught in a combined course of English composition and speech? First, the teacher of this course would have to send the students to the library to search out materials on assigned topics. The modern equivalent of this practice might be called investigative research. After finding the proper research materials, whether in articles or books, the students would proceed to the second stage, outlining. The outline helps the students arrange ideas in the most effective logical order; in practice the outline should be in topical, not in sentence form. Given that many students suffer from poverty of expression, the topical outline will encourage the students to expand or extend their ideas. In addition, the abbreviated outline will help students develop clusters of ideas around a topic so that they can more effectively express themselves in terms of the written and spoken word.

The Roman practice of *amplificatio*, proved useful in practicing the *controversia* and the *suasoria*. These school exercises in legislative address taught the students to take a brief sentence and extent its meaning. A similar practice takes place today when the teacher of English composition attempts to get the students to free-wheel with their thoughts and words. English composition and speech teachers have diagnosed students who suffer from deficiency of thought and expression. The topic sentence outline can help reticent students who think only in terms of simple

sentences and one-syllable words.

Style, the third element of the art of rhetoric, involves the selection of words and the construction of sentences that possess clarity, correctness, and appropriateness. For the ancient rhetoricians, style involved more than the use of ornate language it incorporated rhythmical prose which, today, has totally disappeared from both spoken and written discourse. Although hundreds of figures of language were used by the speaker and writer of Greece and Rome to give grace and texture to the language, these devices have now been reduced to a few dozen.

There are certain caveats, with the exception of the three areas mentioned above, that one should be aware of in teaching a combined course in composition and speech. What applies to one discipline may not apply to the other. For example, a course in speech should stress the use of simple rather than the compound and complex sentences used in writing, a practice which rests on the supposition that sentences in speech must be understood instantaneously. In a speech there is little chance to recapture what was said, whereas in writing the reader can reread and, hopefully, resolve any confusion in meaning. The reader, can, in other words, stop to retrace a capricious verb or noun, join certain clauses, or tie together elusive ideas in order to reconstruct the complete sentence structure of a writer. On the other hand, if a listener fails to understand a speaker's idea or message on first hearing, the idea or message is lost.

In speech, there is usually frequent use of certain personal pronouns, such as, I, me, we, you, mine, ours, and yours, but in writing the third person predominates.

The audience for a speaker differs significantly from the audience of the writer. For the speaker, the audience is present and immediate; for writers, the audience is more distant, both mentally and physically.

In using language, a speaker is most effective in a conversational style; a writer, on the other hand, will resort to a more formal style. Speakers rarely employ phrases or clauses to qualify ideas, while the writer finds it a standard practice to qualify.

In a speech, the speaker must often reiterate important ideas to guarantee retention and understanding, but in writing, needless repetition is a cardinal sin of novices. The invisibility of the spoken word makes it necessary for the speaker to repeat key ideas. The more complex an idea, the more it must be elaborated in a speech to clarify it for the audience.

One of the salient means of getting the full impact of meaning over for the speaker that is missing for the writer is body language which has the effect of multiplying the meaning of the spoken word. Vocal tone, facial language, body poise, and hand gestures all contribute to the meaning. These non-verbal elements in a speech are often the main determinants of meaning. The pause or the lifting of a hand or eyebrow often clarify a sentence in a speech. Some estimate that over 75% of the total impact of a speech is due to non-verbal factors. As interpreters of meaning, the non-verbal elements in a speech are often free of deception, distortion, and confusion. One might lie with words, but it is difficult to lie with body language.

Written communication generally lacks the powerful effect that body language enjoys in oral communication. Punctuation, however, is the writer's attempt to reflect the speaker's tone, gestures, and stance. To compensate for body language, therefore, writers appropriate such mechanical devices as dashes, commas, exclamation marks, and questions marks.

Having looked at some of the caveats inherent in an integrated course in speaking and writing, let us look at some of the advantages deriving from the union of the two. An integrated course offers the student an opportunity of learning terms and conventions applicable to both disciplines, e.g. composing, coping with anxieties, and critically appraising one's own ideas and those of other students. Audience analysis also is similar in both disciplines. A speaker often has difficulty relating to an audience directly in front of him or her. The writer, too, has problems with conceptualizing or imagining the audiences for whom he or she is writing

Both disciplines have identical interchangeable words to apply to definitions and models, e.g. purpose, sending, receiving, and share-experience. In terms of the purpose, formal writing and speaking have identical goals: to communicate ideas that are worthwhile and relevant to those who will receive them. Before writing or speaking, the student should ask the question: What can I say or write about this topic that is original, creative, and important to an audience. In the process of sending the message, the speaker should ask himself or herself how much the audience will see of him or her in the message. When the audience receives the message, it interprets the message and provides feedback. Speakers need to be aware of audience feedback and interpret it while they are speaking. Writers, however, need to imagine audience feedback as they are writing. The impulse to write or speak arises from a desire to share experiences with others. Speaking and writing are basically social acts, and as such can perform a variety of social functions, such as, persuading, entertaining, expressing fear or pleasure, or providing sympathy.[4]

What are the objectives of a combined course of speaking and writing? The general objectives might be the following: a) to develop basic skills in speaking and writing; b) to provide thoughtful analysis and creative thinking as a speaker and writer; c) to develop a sense of responsibility for words expressed in speaking and writing; d) to encourage an appreciation and understanding of the other person's ideas through speaking and writing and e) to develop the ability to secure cooperative action and to work cooperatively with others in terms of criticism.

So far this paper has dealt with the theory supporting a course interfacing speaking and writing, but what are the practical steps involved in setting up this type of course in the college curriculum? The number of speeches and essays should be eight, a number that would allow for a speech one week and an essay the second week throughout the semester. The speeches would be eight to ten minutes long, and the essays would be five to six pages. The same outline would be used for the speech and the essay. The types of speeches and essays, would be informative,

controversial, persuasive, and critical. It is important that the topics be such that the students will have to do library research before writing the outline for the speech and essay. Controversial topics might focus on homosexual teachers' rights, regulation of sex on T.V., or premarital cohabitation. In choosing a topic for the controversial speech, it is best that students pick topics that involve value judgments so that both the pros and cons of the issue will be treated. Persuasive topics might include: purchasing life insurance, investing in the stock market, wearing seat belts, or drinking age for teenagers. Lastly, the practical criticism assignment would involve taking a speech from some text and applying the criteria set up by Aristotle, Burke, or some modern critic to analyze the speech. For writing the essay, the criticism might involve a novel, play, or poem using criteria of an established critic.

The professors teaching the course should be skilled in rhetorical theory so that they could lecture on topics such as history or rhetoric, principles of criticism, principles of persuasion, structural elements in a speech or an essay, outlining, theory of argumentation, supporting elements in a speech or essay, delivery, and body language.

The benefits of an integrated course in speaking and writing are many. When oral and written communication are taught together, the classroom becomes an imaginative place. The uniqueness of the course resides in a supposition that students have the opportunity of sharing experiences and opinions with others by offering constructive criticism of the speeches and the essays given in class.

Endnotes

[1]David W. Breneman, *The Coming Enrollment Crisis: What Every Trustee Should Know* (Washington: Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 1982) p. 9, 20-22.

[2]Cicero's *De Inventione* I, xiv. 19 trans. by H. M. Hubell (Harvard: The University Press, 1960), p. 41.

[3]Cf. Franklyn S. Haiman's lecture published in *Ethics of Controversy: Politics and Protest* (Lawrence, Kansas: The House of Usher, 1968), pp. 123-42 where he decries the rhetoric of 1968 as lacking in invention (no logic and much sloganizing), in arrangement (no introduction, body, or conclusion in speeches), and in style (speeches filled with abrasive and confrontational words).

[4]Cf. Richard A. Katula, *et al.*, *Communication Writing and Speaking*, Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1983), pp. 1-7.

THINKING OUT LOUD: TEACHING THE OTHER HALF OF THE COMMUNICATION COURSE

Richard M. Goldstein and Charles W. Nelson

As is becoming increasingly obvious, students' chances for success in the world depend on their abilities to communicate and on their skills in writing. If teachers are to help students achieve a mastery of language so that they can function more effectively in the ever-changing world, the teachers must be sure that they are adept at speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

All too often, much of the time in a college class room is spent on writing. This is understandable as most curricula require composition rather than speech. From the commercial and technological sectors, however, the repeated message is increasingly clear: teach students to communicate. The reasons for this are obvious since the business person or technical professional must translate written concepts into oral reports; must present, propose, and convince through the spoken word.

Still, this demand can be difficult to meet, as core courses take up much of an undergraduates' time, leaving them little opportunity for experiencing oral communication in their normal class loads. At a school such as Michigan Tech University, the problem is compounded. According to the Engineering Accreditation Code, speech courses, as such, are considered skill-centered and, therefore, cannot count towards graduation. Thus, the majority of the students, who are engineering majors, are cut off from formal speech courses even though they are required by the same agency to take nine hours of composition, which is listed as a humanities rather than as a skills course.

Living with this policy has become increasingly difficult over the years as surveys indicate that the ability to think on one's feet and express one's thoughts clearly are essential skills for the technological graduate. Even within the Humanities Department there has been some resistance to any change. The majority of the faculty are English teachers who are more comfortable with and adept at teaching writing. Those teachers proficient in the teaching of speech constitute a small minority. In addition, many of the faculty, while acknowledging the necessity for providing some form of speech instruction in the classroom, are hesitant to attempt it because they are unfamiliar with the procedures and methods necessary for effective instruction.

Because Michigan Tech is a small, isolated school at which the faculty has had to learn to be adaptive, imaginative, and flexible, it was soon realized that any solution was going to have to come from within since there was neither the money nor the inclination to hire more faculty or to introduce extensive new programs. Since almost all members of our department teach sections of the required composition course, this seemed to be the most logical place to attempt a new approach. Thus an English instructor and a speech teacher were selected to combine expertise and coordinate ideas to find a way to introduce the basics of oral communication into the composition course.

The composition course was structured around a quarter system in which basic writing is taught in the first term, research methods and persuasive writing in the second, and theme papers in the third. Because of the extensive requirements of the first two quarters, it was felt that the logical place to introduce communication was in the final quarter. The papers of this class center around literature or mass media, depending on the preferences of the instructor. Since the study of media appealed more to the engineering students, there was no difficulty in choosing that area for the oral exercises. To introduce the communication component, special sections of freshman composition called Dorm English were used. Dorm English is a program which grew out of the realizations that students will concentrate more on their writing skills if they do not have to adapt to different instructors during their freshman year and also that most undergraduate writing is done not in the classroom, but rather in the residence hall. If conferences, therefore, were to be effective, they also should be held in the dorms. For these reasons, four sections of freshman composition are scheduled into one of the dormitories where facilities are available for classes and office hours. These sections are restricted to residents of that hall, meet in that building, stay together during the year, and meet weekly outside of class hours with their instructors who hold office hours on the premises. Since these students work together for most of a year and are comfortable with each other, it seemed like the ideal environment for introducing the speech component.

In planning the approach and in organizing the material, it was recognized that oral and written communication, while different, had many things in common which could be used in structuring the course. Since the students had been writing for two terms, they were already familiar with the basic steps of choosing a subject, analyzing an audience, narrow-

ing a topic, finding material, formulating a thesis, and organizing the content. These skills could all be applied to their speeches as well. Further, the students had experience in preparing papers aimed at entertaining, informing, and persuading their readers, goals with which public speakers need to be familiar. Much more knowledge and experience, however, were required to turn them into effective oral communicators. Therefore, to prepare the students for the more formal presentations of the last quarter, they were introduced to aspects of speech during the first two terms. As part of class porcedures during the strictly composition quarters, each student was required to do some extemporaneous narration. In addition, they had to analyze papers and paragraphs orally. These simple exercises, combined with healthy amounts of class discussion, helped prepare the way for the more formal coverage.

At the beginning of the third quarter, the classes were introduced to the various aspects of mass media under six main headings: print, film, radio, television, records, and advertising. Every class was to be divided into six groups, each of which would have to investigate and report on one of these major areas. For some classes, the reports would have to be presented in two ways, as a written paper submitted to the teacher and as an oral and visual program given to the rest of the class. After preliminary lectures discussing the history of each form, the students gathered into groups of their choice and began holding discussions on the possible subjects which could be covered.

Once the groups were established, the students had a week to formulate their proposals as well as outline the form which their reports would take. Almost at once, they began to encounter some of the differences between speaking and writing. Since part of the assignment required that each group present a class-long oral report on mass media, featuring audio-visual aids, the students soon realized that while many of their papers could remain rather generalized, their oral reports had to get quite specific. To encourage them in these viewpoints, the instructors met several times with the individual groups both in and out of class to guide them in their planning and assist them in their organizing.

As the term progressed, the classes continued meeting as a whole and also in groups. During the regular class periods, general aspects of the media were covered in lectures which also covered the techniques and devices the students were to employ in their own reports. Class activities during the middle of the term also included visits from media specialists from the instructional resources office and the photo services lab as each class group was responsible for producing its own illustrative materials. The students were encouraged to visit these university services on their own and to seek interviews with other university and community people who could aid them in their research: theater owners, radio and tv personalities, and newspaper reporters, as well as faculty who taught in these areas. Usually, after the presentations during this section of the course, the groups would meet again and begin working on the final form which their reports would take, paying close attention to what audio and visual aids might be needed.

One could assume that with the emphasis placed on oral presentations, the written aspect of the class might tend to have been neglected. Provisions for that were made, however. Since the course was still officially part of the composition sequence, the students were required to write several papers during the ten weeks--each of which had to relate to a division of the mass media (print, electronic, film). This helped demonstrate the essential differences and similarities between the two forms of communication. Concerning audience analysis, the students quickly learned that while their papers were aimed primarily at one kind of individual, the instructor, their presentations would have to appeal to their peers. They learned that while feedback from their papers was almost exclusively in the form of written comments, the reactions to their oral reports were more immediate, coming during and directly after the delivery.

During the sixth and seventh weeks of the quarter, final group conferences were held to complete arrangements for the reports. While the various aspects of visual and vocal delivery had been brought up in class during the preceding weeks, it was at this time that more specific explanations were given regarding such things as the differences between manuscript, memorized, and extemporaneous forms of presentation; the importance of proper clothing, body movement; and the necessity for effective eye contact and vocal control. It was here too that the class members were informed about the effects that stage fright might have on their presentations. Where possible, films, tapes, and live presentations were employed to further clarify these concepts.

The last three weeks of the course were then given over to the presentations and to the evaluations. The results were very good: thoroughly prepared, well delivered and cleverly presented.

There were, of course, problems, but the reports were video taped; the commentary often was not necessary as the members of the group were quick to spot their shortcomings while watching themselves on the monitors.

Evaluations and grades were given out in two stages: in brief sessions immediately after each presentation and during longer conferences scheduled during the last week of class. At these, the video tapes were commented on and extensive analyses offered on the effectiveness of the report and various ways in which it could have been improved. The students offered their evaluations of their own and their classmates' performances. Most of the students agreed that they could have improved their performances if they had worked more on their speaking abilities; thus, the experiment had been successful.

For anyone comtemplating this approach, some preliminary considerations are necessary. Before attempting this kind of experiment, much preparation and planning must be done. Since one must depend upon the cooperation of other people advance coordination is essential. With advance warning to those concerned, however, and with basic directions to the students, most difficulties can be avoided. Even the best laid plans, however, do go wrong and complications must be expected

Cooperation between instructors regarding the successful introduction of this approach also is essential. It is necessary to help

each other out as much as possible, sharing expertise, and visiting other classes to learn about course material.

It is obvious, that some extra work was necessary on the part of instructors and those assisting them. It involved outside meetings with students, increased office hours, conferences with instructional resources people, and consultations. The additional time and effort were well worth it. The student evaluations were positive and enthusiastic. The classes felt they achieved something, built up their self-confidence, and improved their speaking abilities. From a faculty perspective, is satisfying to know that, in spite of accrediting regulations and limited personnel and facilities, basic speech concepts can be introduced into composition courses, which could now accurately be described as communications courses.

Perhaps the most positive comment about this approach came from a former student who reported that on a plant trip for a job interview, he had been required to give an oral presentation for the prospective employers. Before taking the course, he admitted, he probably would have rejected the request to speak in front of other people. After the course, however, he was able to handle the situation with ease. While not being totally successful, and while still needing improvements, the adoption of this type of course can prove to be far more helpful to students than nothing at all.

TEACHING THE BASIC COURSE FROM A THEME PERSPECTIVE

Kathie A. Webster

The twenty-first century is nearly upon us. We would be well advised to accept William Work's assessment that *the demands and opportunities of the twenty-first century will require a higher order of competency that we ordinarily associate with "basic skills." Thinking abilities and communication abilities are inextricably linked--developmentally and functionally. The communication era requires the acquisition of such higher cognitive capacities as information-processing, concept formation, problem-solving, conflict management, issue analysis, and creative thinking.*[1] This paper explores a means of accomplishing that goal through the use and implementation of a common materials approach to the basic course.

The idea of a common materials approach is not new. During the 1960's as students became more issue-oriented, *Speech Teacher* presented a "Symposium on Using Common Materials." In the lead article Herbert W. Hildebrandt presented a rationale identifying benefits for both students and teachers in the commonality of focus. With proper topic selection, he noted the following advantages: *All students read on the topic and then present a speech of information on the issue. Because the class then possesses a degree of sophistication the students are encouraged to innovate new interpretations, new organizational patterns, vivid use of clarifying materials. Discussion may follow, tentative hypotheses are tried, peer evaluation unfreezes strong biases, compromise solutions are proposed, and analysis and synthesis occur.*[2]

Although departments adopted theme directed anthologies or collections of model speeches to supplement the basic speech text in the 60's, the emphasis in the basic course in the 1970's shifted to interpersonal communication. For the most part the common materials approach was forgotten.

In response to societal and business demands for better communication there is renewed interest in a public speaking approach to the basic speech course. The question is how to develop students' skills in speech presentation and speech analysis. The common materials approach is one way to achieve those results. In support of this proposal, this paper will concern itself with: what a common materials approach is, how it can be implemented in the basic course, and the advantages derived from this approach.

A common materials approach means that, in addition to a text which provides the theory or principles for the basic course, students share a common set of resource material on a specific subject. This material can take the form of booklets, magazines, journals, news papers, monographs, or bibliographies. The goal is to provide every student with the same background information for research and reading assignments based on these materials. All speeches and analyses will revolve around a given theme.

In selecting a common materials approach to the basic course, the adoption of a new text is not the instructor's first consideration. In fact, the common materials approach can be achieved with any basic text. The first step is the selection of the topics that will be the basis for the speeches.

Once the topic or topics have been chosen, the work begins. An exercise in library exploration serves the dual function of getting students familiar with library resources and stimulating interest and curiosity in certain selected subjects. The hands on method is the best approach to library research. Asking the students for specific information gives them a goal and helps them assimilate the information. Because the three major keys to library materials are the card catalog, the indexes, and the general reference works, specific questions should require the use of each one. For example, if the chosen topic deals with censorship, the student can be asked to check the card catalogue for call numbers and copyright dates of specific books on that topic.

Regardless of the questions chosen, the object is to provide the student with library skills that will facilitate research in the common materials approach.

Rather than requiring a speech immediately after the library assignment, there are advantages to using problem-solving group discussions. Students acquire problem-solving skills which serve them well not only in the area of communication but in other academic endeavors. In addition, such a beginning develops group coordination and individual motivation by gathering and examining material as a group. And, of course, the assignment lays the groundwork for researching speeches which the students deliver later in the semester. This group activity helps each student to develop audience awareness.

In the real world of speechmaking the speaker usually selects the topic. Because the audience has some basic knowledge of a subject the speaker can deliver a presentation without having to incorporate lengthy explanatory remarks. In some cases an audience may be as knowledgeable about the topic as the speaker. By using a common materials approach

conditions existing outside the classroom can be created within the classroom. A student is more confident in the presentation because of familiarity with the topic. The speaker also knows that the audience is acquainted with the subject, and that the speech is part of a continuum. More important, there is an understanding that speaker and audience are involved in an on-going academic exercise and learning experience.

The assignment for the first speech can be to prepare a four to six minute informative speech on one particular aspect of the designated topic. Within the context of the common materials the situation quickly demonstrates the desirability of the extemporaneous method of delivery. Careful planning, systematic structuring, and a detailed outline provide the student with the flexibility essential in the dynamic context.

Whereas audience analysis is important in informative speeches, it is absolutely essential in persuasive speeches. In the traditional basic speech course one may opt for distributing questionnaires for information about class attitudes and values, but in the everday world the opportunity to use questionnaires seldom arises. Rather, speakers listen, observe, and make generalizations about the values and attitudes of an audience. Working from a common topic, students have the opportunity to make some of the same generalizations as a result of interactions during the group discussions and the informative speeches.

In the common materials approach saliency really ceases to be a significant variable. Both speaker and audience draw from a pool of shared knowledge, and this permits the speaker to refine a persuasion strategy. Furthermore, unlike the situation in traditional courses where students rarely marshal authoritative evidence to their cause, the common materials approach encourages students to document their positions and to develop intellectual credibility.

Once the class has mastered the essentials of research, analysis, and persuasion it can be especially rewarding to both students and instructor to do a Lincoln-Douglas debate. As described by Mary D. Ross's "A Coaches' Guide to Lincoln-Douglas Debate", *Lincoln-Douglas Debate is also known as 'one-man debate'.... Only two speakers are involved, one fulfilling the affirmative case responsibilities and the other, the negative.*[3] Lincoln-Douglas debate is contrasted with traditional debate by stressing that the debater is speaking to an audience and, as such, should develop a direct and communicative delivery.[4] The statement of the topic is a resolution of value rather than of policy. This then results in emphasizing logic, theory, and philosophy and eliminates the plan arguments of traditional debate.

The educational advantages of Lincoln-Douglas debate are quite obvious. As students analyze the issues, they acquire analytical skills and strategies of argumentation. They work for a consistent perspective or philosophy in the development of their arguments. By using logical reasoning, they will learn to expose flaws in reasoning, analysis, and evidence. Careful and critical listening is essential. This type of exercise creates involvement in the challenge of one on one, and demands fair and careful evaluation of case, logic, and evidence by a fellow student rather than an instructor. The fact that this contest takes place in front of a class adds additional challenge and tends to enhance the quality of the performance. For the exercise students must think and produce.

The common materials approach offers advantages to the student, to the instructor, and to the field of communication. The basic course has often been criticized because it provides a very unrealistic speaking situation for the students. They must choose a topic from any field they want, develop it into an interesting, stimulating speech for an audience they hardly know. They must deliver it within a situation that is timed and graded. Moreover they know that what they say will have no relationship to any other speech the students will hear that day. Faculty should not be surprised that many students find no carry-over from their speech class experience to the real world.

While the common materials approach still times and grades students, the overall atmosphere of the speeches provides a context more analogous to the context for the speeches. This changes the problem of "What shall I speak about" to "How can I adapt a particular aspect to the interests and needs of this audience." Rudolph Verderber has stated, "For some students, selecting a topic may be the most terrifying part of the preparation period."[5] Indeed, instructors often have spent time with students helping them identify areas of interest and experience as a guide for finding a topic. One might better spend time with other aspects of speech preparation such as organization, development, or audience adaption. With the common materials approach the student still must decide upon the specific topic, but the search is considerably narrower, and the approach necessarily more adapted to an audience.

The common materials approach provides additional benefits for the student. In most classes, from one to two weeks of class time is spent giving and evaluating each round of speeches. These fragmented bits of information with which the student leaves each class become almost trivia around which an evaluation is wrapped. For example, a speech on "x" follows a speech on "y" which follows a speech on "z". The student audience is tempted to say, "That's interesting, but so what?" and it may well begin to wonder about the time spent listening and evaluating. However, if the speeches center around a common topic, students are able to gain a limited basis of information about a topic. As a result, they better become able to step back from the individual speeches and evaluate the manner in which the information is handled. With an individual information base, each student can evaluate a speaker's logic and reasoning and the adequacy of the support as well as the presentation.

The common materials approach, then, unifies the focus for the students by not asking them to grasp for a topic but rather directing them creatively to narrow and adapt a topic, to see their speeches in relationship to other speeches, and to gain greater insight into the evaluation process.

The advantages to the instructor are somewhat different. Instructors often experience the feeling that a student is giving a file speech from a year or two earlier,

yet cannot prove it. Or perhaps one has heard a student complain, "I can't understand how you could have given me a C- on this speech--it got an A in high school," or, as an instructor banned certain topics in the basic course, such as seat belts, smoking, or abortion, simply because one hears these speeches so many times the evaluation becomes biased. The common materials approach is a means of eliminating these problems. Because the library assignment serves as the basis of the common materials aspect of the course, the instructor can readily change the topic from semester to semester or from section to section or can readily update the information from year to year. In that way students are encouraged to learn and apply what you're teaching.

The common materials approach can be beneficial to communication in general as it enhances student appreciation for the dynamics and relevance of the field. Too often the basic course is thought of as a service course for other departments. As such, its potential can be diminished. The least qualified faculty often are assigned to teach the course, and at the larger institutions, graduate students frequently have sole responsibility for teaching. The image of the department among the student body reflects the low priority given the course. Basic speech is viewed as something one has to suffer through. Yet speech professionals should recognize that communication is one of the most pervasive and important activities. The faculty knows that what it can teach students is important to their own well-being as well as to the functioning of a democratic society. Business leaders testify that the ability to speak well in public is one of the most important skills. The common materials approach provides the opportunity to bring the actual closer to the should be. As students focus their oral presentations on an issue in society, a secondary effect, appreciation of the importance and the pervasiveness of communication concerns grows. In essence a class is used to teach more about the discipline.

This paper has tried to look at what the common materials approach is, how it can be implemented, and some of the advantages it provides. It has helped develop the student's information processing, concept formation, problem-solving, conflict management, issue analysis, and creative thinking. By so doing, it has helped better prepare students for their role in society.

Endnotes

[1]William Work, "Communication Education for the Twenty-first Century," *Communication Quarterly*, 30 (1982), 268.

[2]Herbert W. Hildebrandt, "A Rationale for Non-Fragmented Topics," *Speech Teacher*, 16 (1967), 261.

[3]Mary D. Ross, "A Coaches' Guide to Lincoln-Douglas Debate," Paper presented at the Speech and Theatre Association of Missouri, 1981, p. 14.

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[5]Rudolph F. Verderber, *The Challenge of Effective Speaking*, 5th ed., (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1982), p. 37.

A SPECIAL TOOL FOR OFFERING CRITICISM: THE POST-SPEECH TRANSCRIPT

Gary B. LaFleur

Teachers of public speaking have long recognized the importance of offering their students constructive criticism; moreover, the nature of the rhetorical act has required, for many centuries, that teachers of the art provide that criticism soon after the completion of the speech. Sensing that such critical immediacy allows for and frequently promotes less than the best evaluation and analysis, a search was started for a system that would allow for more carefully considered criticism. This paper reports on the development, rationale, and nature of a new system.

Most teachers of public speaking ask for verbal comments from the speaker's immediate audience of peers. Teachers also take it upon themselves to evaluate the positive and negative aspects of the speech. However, because good teachers tend to recognize the limitations of such immediate verbal criticism, it has become common practice to provide each student with some form of more extended and considered analysis.

The most common form of such analysis is some type of critique sheet which is, at best, a brief essay to the student which touches on important and constructive ideas for improvement, and, at worst, a mere checklist which does little more than ambiguously suggest what categories the student has made errors. Such critique sheets are commonly provided to the student soon after a speech and often suffer from the limitations of immediacy and by hasty generalizations.

On the other hand, critique sheets, even of the checklist variety, are not to be discounted entirely; their value is clear. They provide students with some record of a teacher's reactions, call attention to the important principles of speech-making, and, encourages a teacher's own awareness and recall of the critical categories.

Nevertheless, the forms limit the amount of criticism possible by their usual one-page formats, by the hasty scribbling of superficial observations, and by repetitive use, they frequently have the effect of desensitizing the teacher to the interaction that occurs between and among the areas focused on by the classical canons.

In addition to problems which seem inherent in the nature of critique sheets, the apparently necessary immediacy of critical commentary is plagued by frequently unnoticed problems. Not only does immediacy generally engender less than meaningful analysis, but also it suffers from the unavoidable intrusion of some interesting post-speech problems: students frequently are so pleased that the speech is over that they are not particularly attentive; students who feel that they have done very well must attend to immediate criticism while still ego-tripping and, thus, may selectively perceive class and teacher criticism in such a way as to misunderstand; or fears of having done poorly may frequently lead to all kinds of distortion. In short, the immediacy of criticism is scarcely any guarantee at all of efficacy.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the development and rationale for a system of post-speech criticism which can constitute a satisfactory solution to the problems described above.

The first step is to require each student meet with the instructor for a post-speech conference the day after the classroom speech. In these conferences the critique-sheet comments of the day before are reviewed and then particular areas which might be improved in the student's next speech are discussed. This seems an effective method of criticism except that the students frequently had no real recollection of certain aspects of their speaking behavior. The use of a pre-speech outline and, of the critique sheet seemed to promote only a critical focus on the problems of invention and organization. The use of video-tape seemed an obvious remedy.

Thus, the second step, involves the video-taping of every speech and then viewing it privately with each student at that student's post-speech conference.

The third step is to require carefully considered written critiques from a panel of student judges. Now each student, for each speech, has a panel of four student critics: one who focuses on the claims and their support-development, one who focuses on the organization of the speech and the speaker's design to facilitate the audience's following of that organization, one who focuses on the language or style of the speaker, and finally, one who focuses on the delivery of the speech. These four critics are required to submit detailed essays to the instructor the day following the speech. The critiques are used in post-speech conferences along with the viewing of the video-tape, the review of the pre-speech outline, and the instructor's critique-sheet comments. This third step proved very valuable.

The final step in the process proved to be very valuable, and much praised by the students: the creation of an audio-tape. Students report that they find it a valuable exercise since it calls their attention to their actual vocal behavior--unlike video-tape which seems to call more attention to the visual aspects

of delivery. Then from the audio-tape, a transcript is made. The transcript calls the student's attention to the vocal aspects of delivery and its subsequent use in post-speech conferences, in conjunction with a replaying of the cassette and the video-tape, allows for the creation of a tangible record of language errors as well as for the creation of a visual picture of the extent of pause vocalization, improprietous pauses, and mistakes in inflection.

The use of this four-step critique system has been adopted at Utica College. It requires that each student create the transcript and then listen to the tape again while marking the typed transcript to indicate pauses and underlining it to suggest varying vocal emphasis. At conferences the audio-recording and the transcript are reviewed with the student, while the instructor is commenting on mistakes in the areas of grammar, intonation, emphasis, pausing and packing, phrasing, word choice and usage. The instructor marks the transcript quite as a teacher of composition might correct a written composition. The result is that the student leaves the conference with a tangible record of successes and failures.

Given the completeness of this system, it is important to stress, with each student, the need to focus on certain areas when preparing the next speech. The system has the disadvantage of occasionally overwhelming the beginning student with what seems like an unconquerable host of errors so it becomes important to be supportive and encouraging. Nevertheless, students are more motivated to take public speaking seriously once they see the entire picture.

This paper has presented a brief description of some of the frequently ignored problems of post-speech criticism in courses in public speaking and then has outlined several innovations. It involves the use of a post-speech conference, a video-tape, student critique forms, an audio-tape, and the creation of a post-speech transcript. Some faculty undoubtedly will find this four-step evaluation system cumbersome, time consuming, and too complex for the level of student for which it was designed. The results, however, indicate it is worth the problems involved.

THE COMMUNITY SERVICE CLASS AT THE SMALL COLLEGE: A MEDIUM FOR DISCOVERY

Joe Ortiz

A common concern of communication instructors at small colleges is whether or not courses above the basic course will have sufficient students to warrant their being offered. While there is no guaranteed method for enticing students into a class or for creating communication majors, by developing and offering community service classes a communication department can familiarize prospective students with the many practical applications of communication. Rex Mix contends that one of the prime reasons for a student taking a communication class is that the student can use the content of the course immediately.[1] This idea of immediacy of application is what makes communication an attractive subject for developing community service classes. Courses such as Parent-Child Communication, Assertiveness for Women, and Communication for Managers provide the participants with answers to immediate problems, questions, and concerns that they face. Additionally, experiences within these classes can serve to motivate the participants to look at what more the communication department has to offer.

The contention of this paper is that communication instructors at small colleges can turn to community service classes not only as a means of promoting the departmental image, but also as a means of generating new ideas for departmental effectiveness. Admittedly, the primary mission of community service classes is to educate, and this goal should not be compromised. The promotion of departmental image and the generation of new ideas for effectiveness should be looked upon as by-products of a well developed and successful community service class.

As a matter of definition, community service classes encompass those credit and non-credit courses that are open to the community as well as to the college's formally enrolled students. What usually differentiates these classes from the established curriculum is that community service classes are developed according to needs and interest that are unique to the community. Subjects that comprise the area of study in these classes vary. What makes community service classes attractive and popular for students is that they are often non-credit and often are concerned with practical issues. Graded assignments and testing, thus, are virtually eliminated. With the framework of extrinsic rewards and punishment diminished, the final grade is not the primary motive for learning, a factor many teachers appreciate.

Communication instructors can do much to develop community service classes that relate to practical issues. Much information has been generated by the discipline with respect to how communication functions within defined contexts (i.e., organizations, families, groups, cultures, etc.). Cronkhite urges making material easy for the layperson to understand.[2] Community service classes are effective vehicles for accomplishing, in part, what Cronkhite advocates.

Additionally, the communication area needs to be better understood by laypersons. Many people do not have a clear image of communication, but the image created by community service classes can be a positive one; one that can encourage students who enroll in them to pursue additional courses within a department. While it could be argued that a required basic communication course motivate students, many students form an adversion to required classes. They are looking to get the burdensome requirements over so that they can take the classes related to their major area of study. It is much easier to stimulate inquisitiveness in students who want to be in a class, as opposed to those who have to be in a class. Individuals who attend community service classes normally have an interest in the subject area, and have a desire to be there. The experience in a particular class could prompt a desire to pursue related or other areas of communication within a department's established curriculum.

In addition to clarifying the public's image of communication departments, community service classes can be a medium for generating new ideas for departmental effectiveness, specifically in the area of curriculum development. Classes such as those concerned with political communication, communication and aging, listening, and health communication may not be offered within a small college's communication curriculum. The faculty and administration could turn to community service classes to assist in the development of credit courses for the curriculum. For example, an eight week community service class in Communicating in the Health Professions could attract individuals who work in hospitals and medical and clinical offices. Participants would bring to such a class unique insights to the communication problems, experiences, and issues inherent to health organizations. This information could be valuable to an instructor developing a course in health communication for the department's curriculum. The instructor would more clearly be able to define course objectives, select resources and assignments, make contacts for potential guest lectures, and arrive at an understanding of the best

mode for instruction. Much time and energy could be saved if a community service class were used to explore new curricular offerings.

Instructors could use the experience of teaching a community service class to improve courses currently offered within a department. An instructor might develop a community service class for local business persons concerned with quality circles. From this class could evolve a unit on quality circles for a business and professional communication or organizational communication course.

Finally, communication departments with graduate programs could improve their effectiveness by giving their graduate students a rare opportunity to experience the planning, developing, and instructing of a course through the use of a community service class. Seldom is a graduate teaching assistant allowed to deviate from a syllabus that is centrally organized. Indeed, a teaching assistant may have course objectives, organization, assignments, and resources already mapped out and may only follow through with teaching the class as assigned.

In consultation with a faculty advisor, a graduate student could be expected to research and define the subject area, develop learning objectives, select resources, and then teach a community service class. The student could be responsible for the entire development of the course, making all decisions with respect to the course content and approach. An experience such as this could provide a graduate student with confidence, experience, and insight that otherwise might not happen until the first full-time teaching position.

Most communication instructors at a small college claim the lack of resources, staff, or students as an excuse for a static department. Despite such problems there are ways to generate interest, innovation, and effectiveness within the communication department. Among these ways is the use of community service classes which can serve to familiarize students with what communication departments have to offer, aid in curriculum development and maintenance, and serve as a medium for giving graduate students as experience in developing a course. Through the development of such classes the students of a particular class learn, and the department's image, potential, and effectiveness can be enhanced.

Endnotes

[1]C. Rex Mix, "Curriculum Development in the Small College," Educational Resource Information Center ED 210 729.

[2]Gary L. Cronkhite, "Out of the Ivory Palace: A Proposal for Useful Research in Communication and Decision," in Robert J. Kibler and Larry L. Barker (eds.), *Conceptual Frontiers in Speech-Communication: Report of the New Orleans Conference on Research and Instructional Development*, Speech Association of America, New York, 1969, p. 113-135.

SO YOU'RE IT!
THE THEATRE PROGRAM OF LIMITED SIZE

James L. DeYoung

In the August-September, 1983, issue of *Theatre Crafts* the director of graduate theatre studies at a prominent state university was discussing the university's MFA program in design. He said: *Our design MFA ends with a creative project. . .a full production for which one student does the scenery, lighting, costumes, props, and so forth. It's a killer. We keep asking the students if they'd rather we changed that--let them work on individual elements of several productions--but they say they'd rather be responsible for it all.* It is an interesting sentiment, but it disregarded the fact that there are a considerable number of theatre people who do do it all on a regular basis.

A second problem in the statement was that while the students seem to prefer to deal with all aspects of design, the graduate school seems to be intent on training a specialist in only one technical area. The statement even reflects a certain amount of condescension toward the person who does it all, since professional success is equated with specialization.

Working in a theatre program of limited size (by which is meant a theatre operation that is supervised by one or two trained staff members) is as noble as, and probably more common than, other ways of making a living in the theatre. This does not mean that there are no problems connected with running a theatre program with a one- or two-person staff. They are:

1) The limited size program offers little or no opportunity for daily interchange between professional colleagues in the discipline.

2) The multiple job demands leave less time for planning, reading, thinking, or getting away from campus.

3) The teaching load remains heavier in small colleges, even though adequate load reductions for design and directing are more common now than they used to be.

4) The teaching is confined primarily to introductory level courses; pressure to develop advanced skills or do advanced research is lighter.

5) The budgets in smaller operations are usually tighter.

Dealing with these problems while developing a workable and beneficial program for students is the major challenge for the administrator of the small program.

Insularity and provincialism remain the major occupational hazards of the faculty member in theatre who teaches at a small college and who lives some distance from a major metropolitan area. Compensation for the lack of daily contact with colleagues in the discipline can be managed by making a special effort to attend professional meetings. The faculty member in the limited size program does a disservice to students by failing to be professionally active. It is more important for faculty in smaller programs, which are more likely to be in rural areas, to go to professional meetings that it is for faculty in large universities. Those meetings provide the contacts with others in the discipline that the university faculty take for granted.

Likewise, the staff member in a small program has a greater need to get off campus to see productions. Unfortunately, it is difficult to do this during the regular academic year because one or two person staffs are seldom out of production. If the small school is located in a rural area, distance to other theatres plus limited travel funds further complicate the problem. Even though trips to major theatre centers require financial sacrifice, they are imperative for the staff member in a small department. Students will clearly be shortchanged if their teachers cannot draw on wide experience.

There is no immediate solution to the problem of limited curricula and of higher teaching loads in small schools. Small departments should declare that they are not in the business of professional theatre training. They should sell their program to the participant as an integral part of the liberal arts experience. Many institutions advertise the number of chemistry and business majors in their programs but never the number of theatre majors. This, however, does not mean that there are no majors or that they are not given good training, adequate experience, or extraordinary amounts of one on one instruction. Indeed, the talented student director, designer, or actor can often do more theatre in a small program than students at major universities. However, this does not mean that one or two staff people can completely cover all specialties in the theatre field. No student enrolling in a small college theatre program should expect it. The pre-professional design student should be sent to the specialized university program that will meet his or her needs. In the same manner, if a person's academic ambitions cannot be met without teaching courses like Special Problems of 16th Century Stage Armour Construction, that person ought to looking for a job within a larger program.

Money is always a problem in the small program. As a colleague once said, A *budget*

is by definition a parcel of money that is never sufficient to do the job. Budgets always are relative and even people with fifty thousand dollar production allocations can complain about underfunding. Most small operations work on limited funding, but with some imagination good theatre can be done. Perhaps one problem with the theatre establishment (Broadway, regional theatre, and large universities, is that it seems to have fallen victim of the Overblown Production Concept Syndrome. It has expensive sets made out of welded chromium and assorted polyvinyls that fly, pop up, disappear, and move about the stage under their own power. It has two hundred computer controlled dimming circuits pulsating to the beat of amplified music in the pit. It has costumes by Bill Blass and by editors of fantasy comic books. In the midst of all this is a play and some actors who often appear overwhelmed by the weight of the production. Some time ago in New York Des McAnuff's new musical about the death of Baron Von Richthoffen was presented at the Public Theatre. With its myriad fog machines, airplanes on cables, and descending balloons it was the perfect example of scenic overkill. The actors and a potentially delightful script were buried. Is it sacrilege to suggest that there is such a thing as over-production? There is no contest in the realm of spectacle for the live theatre when the competition is *Return of the Jedi*. Perhaps theatre poeple should turn their attention back to the script, the player, and the playwright. As McAnuff said in an interview in *Performing Arts Journal*, *"We're [the playwrights] now left to a large extent with the situation of the writer as an outsider.*[2]

What is being suggested here is that, although the small theatre operator begins with budgetary and other drawbacks, survival is possible. Good theatre can be produced for local audience with available talent. A few students can be trained by utilizing the close student-teacher contact that is so much a part of the small college.

The question is, what can be done? First of all, a small theatre program needs a functional campus drama group. It must be the base of the operation and it must become the equivalent of the majors who keep large academic theatre departments going. One concept for involving students is to advertise a creative learning situation that can be fun and also can be continued after graduation. The real successes in a program like this are the graduates who attend live theatre and participate in community theatre. Audience development and leisure time participation are perfectly respectable goals. They even may be more important goals for theatre educators than professional training. If there was a bigger audience for theatre in this country, it might be possible to retire that bitter joke about theatre training being training for unemployment.

Start the process by developing a drama club. Instill pride in belonging by making it an earned membership. Make the membership worthwhile by offering some benefits such as reduced ticket prices or special trips. Recruit actively, especially among freshmen. Set up a table at registration and welcome every incoming student. Establish a sense of identity for the organization through a logo, a tee shirt, and an awareness of its history. While on the subject of tee shirts, since they are so common these days, make it a shirt for the group rather than for an individual production. Establishing loyalty to a drama club's program is important. A button advertising the current play can turn the organization's tee shirt into an up-to-date poster.

Because theatre production generates visible symbols, take every opportunity to display production photos, costumes, props, and set pieces. Get a showcase window in the student center. Put up displays the first week of school and the week before shows. Use slides and video tape where possible, and advertise on the campus radio station.

Even more important than good club organization is good production organization. One of the main problems in the small operation is finding sufficient staff time to supervise a basically unskilled work force. Time can be conserved by having well thought out production plans, due dates that are known to all, and clear written expectations for key jobs. These are necessities for any production, but when relatively inexperienced people hold key positions, it is imperative that they be given clearly written, process-oriented instructions.

The backbone of any production system is a crew head who knows what to do and when it has to be done. Emphasize discipline, punctuality, orderly process, chain of command, and continuity. Crew duties are planned so that the finish of one show is the prelude to the next. Cleanup includes inventory and filling stocks for the next production. Crew members and crew heads always are evaluated by the staff so that good performance will be noted and rewarded. In some areas, such as ticket sales, a student can probably do the job with minimal supervision; in other areas, such as set construction, there may be need for extensive consultation. The key is to do the detailed duty sheets.

Actors are integrated into the crew system as much as possible. Encourage, even forcefully nudge actors into technical duties. It is good for morale and helps insure that players do not develop into prima donnas. At a minimum all actors should be required to attend the set-up and the strike.

If expectations are clear to students, the discipline needed to reach the goal will be developed. It will not happen overnight, but with a planned system operating, one can get a show on and survive to talk about it.

Above all, take advantage of the opportunities afforded by the limited size program. Enjoy the opportunity to keep a wide assortment of theatre skills alive. Appreciate the chance to design and direct regularly instead of on a rotation basis. And finally, take pride in the freedom to select the plays to be produced.

Since no world is ideal, problems will always remain; but these words of Peter Brook can hold special meaning: *I've never resented any conditions that I've been in because each condition has its negative and positive. When you know you have only so many possibilities, this can be very exciting. It is also often a terrible constraint and can be very destructive, but the truth is always in a combination of the two.* In a program of limited size, the point is well made.

Endnotes

[1]Susan L. Wallach, "Training in the Twin Cities--A College Guide," *Theatre Crafts*, 17, August-September, 1983, p. 60.

[2]Bonnie Marranca, "The American Playwright: Insider or Outsider," *Performing Arts Journal*, VII, #2, 1983, p. 44.

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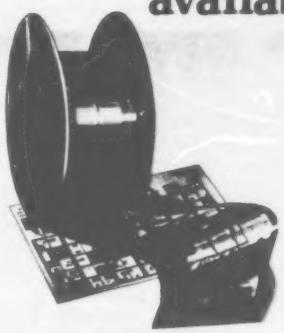

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BURNOUT SYNDROME: FIGHTING THE BATTLE BETWEEN INSPIRATION AND DESPERATION

David C. File

The purposes of this paper are to identify burnout, describe what it does to the functioning individual, discuss the major causes, and look at solutions to combat or prevent it. Before proceeding, some limitations must be made. These limitations are based upon the relevance that burnout has upon one segment of the population: that group of administrators who work in two- and four-year college theatre programs of limited size. The following serve as a context for the entire paper:

1) that the majority of theatre-educators is made up of those individuals working in two - four year programs of limited size;

2) that the majority of administrators work alone or in departments staffed by less than four full-time persons;

3) that the majority of small theatre programs exist in colleges/universities of less than 5,000 students;

4) that the majority of those colleges/universities are located in primarily non-urban, provincial settings;

5) that the majority of those smaller theatre programs offer undergraduate level curricular majors only (with possibly none in theatre) and those programs are called upon to serve, concurrently, majors and non-majors alike in a liberal-arts setting;

6) that the majority of faculty in the smaller programs have been teaching at the institution not less than three and no more than eight years; and

7) that the majority had no teaching experience prior to entering that teaching position.

Hopefully, these assumptions create an accurate representation of factors that shape individual work environments.

In arriving at a definition of burnout it is necessary to start with a question: What happens when a circuit becomes loaded beyond its capacity to handle the current demanded by electrical instruments being used? The fuse burns out, thusly saving the entire system from self-destruction. Human burnout is essentially the same thing. When the energy demands made of an individual in accomplishing a predetermined goal exceed the capacity to realize the proportion between energy-expense and goal-accomplishment, burnout is likely to occur. Human burnout is an emotional stop-gap which prevents an individual from being destroyed by stress when over-excessive energy is drained by goals which are too large to be accomplished.

Burnout syndrome is directly related to the drive toward goal-accomplishment as well as the anticipated rewards inherent in such forward-moving behavior. Herbert J. Freudenberger, a New York psychologist, puts it this way: *A Burn-Out is someone in a state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward...Whenever the expectation level is dramatically opposed to reality and the person persists in trying to reach that expectation, trouble is on the way...friction is building up, the inevitable result of which will be a depletion of the individual's resources, an attrition of his vitality, energy, and ability to function.*[1]

There is a great difference between burnout and depression. Depression can be defined as a psychotic disorder marked by sadness, inactivity, difficulty in concentration, and feelings of dejection. Such a disorder cuts across all behavior of an individual, creating an inactive, non-moving person. Burnout, on the other hand, always grows out of a particular area of an individual's life-- as opposed to a complete breakdown which characterizes depression. Burnout is a depletion of one's physical and mental resources caused by excessive striving to reach some unrealistically expected goal imposed by oneself or by the values of society.[2] A burnout does not cause one to cease striving, rather it alters the perception from which that striving is viewed.

According to Maslow, as cited in a book by Ed Rintye, there is a universal continuum of values or needs which exist in a hierarchical arrangement. Only after a lower-level value has been fulfilled, is an individual free to move toward fulfillment of the next higher level of need. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is as follows: 1) physical needs (food, water, rest); 2) safety needs (clothing, shelter, protection from environment); 3) love and belongingness (peer acceptance); 4) self-esteem (respect from others and from self); and (5) self-actualization (developing highest potentials to be all that one is).[3]

Burnout progressively strips the individual's attainment of needs (at least from his/her own viewpoint) level by level, thus creating feelings of distance from the attainment of self-actualization and personal identity in particular areas of one's life.

As is taught in acting classes, theatre people are goal-oriented. As goals are achieved, rewards are the currency which is exchanged for feelings of growth toward self-worth. When one becomes bogged down in expending energy on unreachable goals and the rewards lose their proportionate value, a person begins depleting the store of human self-worth and starts sliding down the needs hierarchy. In burnout, one loses the objective sense of self-worth and retreats into a more subjective need for self-protection. Such action results in a defensive attitude of increased conservative, restrictive, distrusting behavior.

Certainly such a state of being allows for no motivation toward being creative, affirmative, or inspired about one's self or one's work. In small theatre programs one can shift between feelings of artistic inspiration and feelings of territorial desperation. These feelings lead to such questions as: are there adequate stage facilities, construction/storage space, equipment, staff and student resources, library, and production budgets, or must one produce plays at a consistent quality while supplies and support shrink? Is there a feeling that the theatre program is somehow not a member of the select group of administratively supported campus programs? Or is there a feeling that colleagues around the campus know and truly respect the contributions to student growth and the cultural environment theatre offers?

Those questions call forth responses which can be located on Maslow's need hierarchy. The level at which one perceives oneself to be located can be indicative of the susceptibility to suffering from a burnout. The lower the level, the farther one may feel from self-fulfillment. The farther from self-fulfillment, the less rewarding a job may seem. The less rewarding the job, the more those feelings of desperation battle the feelings of inspiration. As the battle-lines are clearly drawn and feelings of adequate rewards for work become less frequent, one may begin to feel like the wheels are spinning and that there is a need to exert more energy to again proceed toward achievement of goals. Commitment becomes over-commitment; dedication becomes over-dedication; more energy with less reward leads directly to a burnout.

A burnout is a gradual process of desperation moving toward distancing , of over-commitment now moving toward undercommitment, and of overdedication now moving toward lessening of dedication--all of which result in the construction of insulation between a person and the job as artist-educator.[4] This insulation commonly takes the form of cynicism, social isolation, loss of objectivity, lack of trust in others, increased fatigue, and lessened ability to concentrate while at work.

Out of all this, there is one fundamental cause of a burnout. This cause is manifested in many different ways, but it comes down to a single issue: *whenever the expectation level is dramatically opposed to reality, and the person persists in trying to reach that expectation.*[5] In other words, are goal-expectations realistically attainable in view of the time and resources available? If so, there should be a proportionate view of the expected rewards to achieving that goal. If not, the payoff will, as Freudenberger puts it, *seldom seem commensurate with either the dream or the effort spent.* This is not to imply that the rewards are too small or too few--it means that they are perceived by the burned-out individual to be insufficient.

This fundamental cause manifests itself in the form of expectations which are placed upon people by others: political structuring within the campus, non-teaching or non-production demands, perceptions of what a theatre program can or should be capable of, expectations created by outside professionals and/or accreditation agencies, and, of course, high student demands and expectations.

Expectations created by oneself contribute heavily to the goals/rewards delimma. This point is a specific example that contributes to the major cause of burnout--unrealistic goal and reward expectations. The image of oneself does not match the reality of the job.

Here are three solutions or preventative measures. First, try to break the tendency toward overcommitment and overdedication--each of which leads naturally towards feelings of desperation. Feel free to break this tendency by moving away from the situations creating overcommitment. Take a vacation. Go to the city. Leave everything in the office. This will help a person take stock of their image and it will help provide realistic expectations.

Second, assess job-goals and tasks according to the real resources available. Identify the resulting means by which goals can be attained and tasks completed. Clearly identify the goals so they can be pursued with equal clarity. The point of this is to symbolize those expectations so that one can maintain an awareness of the difference between the dream and the reality.

And, third, examine the reward systems. When rewards do come, who shares them? Who celebrates? Any rewards, when shared within a community of others, become greater. Those who teach in smaller theatre programs must cultivate friends and colleagues around the campus (more than just politics) in order to increase trust, sensitivity, and community. The rewards in that will be great. Any community feeling which can be established sets up a network for the sharing. This last point rises as most important in combating burnout and feelings of desperation. Just as the chorus in Sophocles' time stirred the emotions and intensified the individual, so, too, can a community of people share and reinforce the efforts and rewards for a job well done.

Endnotes

[1]Herbert J. Freudenberger with G. Richelson, *Burn-Out: The High Cost of High Achievement*, (New York, 1980), p. 13.
[2]*Ibid.*, p. 16.
[3]Ed Rintye, *Centering a Lopsided Egg: Reflections on Communication Balance*, (Boston, 1975), p. 152.
[4]Freudenberger, *op. cit.*, p. 157.
[5]*Ibid.*, p. 51.

STRANGE BEDFELLOWS:
THE SMALL COLLEGE AND THE COMMUNITY THEATRE

Pamela S. Wegner

The theatre program of limited size, often composed of one staff member as director, one colleague as designer, and numerous non-majors who were inspired to be actors by boufriends or girlfriends who had such aspirations and who became involved in the program mainly as a social activity, faces unique pressures during this period of change on small college campuses. While the theatre program often is one of the bastions of the pure liberal arts curriculum during a time of vocationally-oriented majors, it usually performs its cultural and social services to the campus and community with limited resources and personnel. Often located in rural areas some distance from major cultural or theatrical centers, the theatre program of limited size can suffer from both a lack of competition and of colleagues. Happily, many of these problems can be alleviated if a climate of cooperation can be established between the small college and the community theatre. This paper will explore various suggestions for town and gown theatrical collaboration.

When approaching a successful cooperation between theatre programs, three assumptions govern the thinking of the college theatrical professional. First, that person must believe that the lack of an advanced degree does not necessarily preclude talent, expertise, or commitment to theatrical excellence, any more than the achievement of such a degree assures it. There are talented, exciting, committed people at the community theatre level who can teach the small college program's students concepts the college counterpart might not be able to teach them, and can teach the students as well, if the college program is willing to give up the security of being the only show in town. It is easy to become a guru to students, as many directors in small programs have found, when the director is the theatre program. It is simple to be "the best director I have ever worked with" when that director is the only director for whom the student has ever worked. It takes the small college director can risk letting the students go, letting them realize that his/her way is not the only way, or even the best way, the director has solved one of the major problems of the program of limited size--its limited facilities; its small production schedule; its lack of a variety of viewpoints due to a lack of personnel; and its lack of competition in auditions and its homogeneous casts which result from the same people trying out for the same roles again and again. Working in the community theatre sometimes can illustrate theatre as a collaborative process to students better than the program of limited size can, when one person is director, designer, and acting coach all at the same time. If the small college theatrical professional acknowledges the community theatre's capacity for expanding a program, the pressure is off. Of course, acknowledging and appreciating the capabilities of the local theatre group without defensiveness or jealousy is more than just loaning each other props or taking out ads in each other's programs. It is realizing that one does not have to direct four productions a year because the students want and need to be involved in more productions, since the community theatre can provide those additional opportunities, thus allowing the director the chance to rest before starting a new production. It is realizing that it is not necessary to direct a play with a cast of thousands so that everyone who wants to can get a chance to perform. The community theatre productions can help use more students. The problem of having advanced students who need to see their theoretical work put into practice, whether they be directors, designers, or even publicists, but not having the resources, the production space, the money, or the facilities, to allow all of them to do that can be solved with the community theatre as a resource. The college professional can help a directing student develop a concept for a senior project, and then, even though there is no room for it on the college production schedule, that concept might be staged as a community theatre production. A student who is interested in publicity does not need to work solely on hypothetical models. The college theatre might not need a brochure developing a subscription audience or a reorganization of the box office, but the community theatre might welcome such efforts. The college professional can work with more than two design students, even though there are only two plays in the yearly production schedule. The others can see their work on display when they design for the high school or the community theatre. Of course, all these efforts can be completed for credit, as internships or practica under the college's sponsorship. What is particularly beneficial about these efforts is that the students can exhibit them in the real world, putting their work on the line where it might fail or

succeed without the college professional's impetuous. So often in the small college program, the theatrical professional finds students mirroring ideas and techniques, instead of trying to develop their own, working to satisfy the teacher rather than themselves. Becoming involved in the community theatre can offer students enough separation to learn to trust their own talent, instead of needing their director's approval to validate it.

This leads to the second assumption. With few exceptions, the small college theatre program is not training professionals who see theatre as a vocation. It is encouraging and training amateurs, those who do it for the love of the art, who see theatre as an avocation which can stay with them all their lives. In what kind of theatre will most, if not all, of these students be involved once they leave the campus? Their local community theatre. What better time to learn how that kind of theatre can work, and how they can assure excellence in the theatres with which they get involved once they graduate, than while they also are working with the college professional? Working with the community theatre, using it as a prototype or working model, a director can help students develop the awareness of the interpersonal skills necessary to make a board of directors function or a play selection committee be more than a group of isolated egos arguing over what roles they want in next summer's musical. Here is an example of what this view of the community theatre as a prototype can do. How many theatre professors have not found themselves in the situation of talking to a directing student who does not understand why the cast is not committed to a scene--why they will not learn their lines, or why they come late to rehearsals, or do not pay attention, when he has been yelling at them and threatening them? Being involved in community theatre, even as an observer, can demonstrate what is needed to build a sense of commitment in a cast, when nothing, not grades, or letters of recommendation, or a salary, can be used as manipulation by a director. Even if the community theatre director might not be able to develop a good group in rehearsals, the students can learn from that as well. By being able to study how the local community theatre works, the student can be prepared to do a good job in the community to which he/she moves.

Besides using the community theatre personnel, the college program can use their production schedule to develop students' capabilities in another avocational area: that of a discriminating and enthusiastic audience. Many students, regardless of how much they are reassured that feelings will not be hurt and that their opinions are valid, are better critics who demonstrate confidence in their own judgments when they are not discussing the work of their mentor or friends. Professional groups can help fill the void, although the professional status of a company can inhibit a fledgling critic's responses. Thus, having a class come to its own conclusions about a play, and then not only see the play, but enter into a dialogue with director, actors, and designers about the choices made in a specific production is a way of demonstrating theatre as a living art form which is much more effective than lecturing about the creative process.

This cooperation, of course, can be mutually beneficial. Educators have skills that can aid the community theatre as well, if they are offered as part of a symbiotic relationship. Perhaps the college director is not satisfied with the variety of plays the community theatre presents (they seem to produce *6 Rms Rv Vw*, *On Golden Pond*, or *Once Upon A Mattress* with the results that none of those plays can be worked into the college season.) The college director, thus, needs to ask to be included on the Play Selection Committee, not to threaten that committee, but to make suggestions of plays with which it may not be as familiar.

The quality of the community theatre performances is uneven? The community group probably suffers from the same lack of objective criticism which plagues the college program. Giving constructive criticism is another skill which the college director can offer colleagues in the local theatre, helping not only to improve the quality of their productions, but also to build bridges between the two groups.

This leads to the third assumption. As artists in the small theatre department in the small college in the small towns of this country, the theatrical directors' communities extend beyond their college campuses to include the entire cultural and artistic environment of the area. As such, the college directors have the same goals, and are trying to reach the same audiences, as the community theatre. Rather than feeling that they have to compete for this audience, that they have to prove their program is better, more artistic, more serious, or more creative than the community group so that the audience will support gown over town performances, rather than feeling that they must diminish the local theatre's efforts in order to highlight their own, they can cooperate to build and strengthen that audience for both their groups. Here are two examples which demonstrate what is possible when such cooperation does occur.

There are many small towns in which the only live theatre is the junior class play. The people in these towns can be sophisticated and cosmopolitan. They often support classical and avant-garde theatre groups with national reputations; they often are as knowledgeable, and financially more supportive of the arts per capita, as audiences in New York City, Chicago, or Los Angeles. In Minneapolis/St. Paul, for example, Tyrone Guthrie started a classical repertory company in an area in which he would have to build an audience. He and Michael Langham, the artistic director, realized that they needed to educate their audience, not patronize them, not condescend to them, but educate them to realize that they did not need to be afraid of Shakespeare, Chekhov, or Euripides. They showed their audience that once they understood what a director or designer was attempting to do with a specific production, they could enjoy the same play many times, perhaps performed at different theatres.

Langham's publicity and programs were teaching devices, filled with etchings, pictures of various historical productions, and critical and literary commentary. As a result of the effort to build and educate an audience to appreciate the classical repertory, Minneapolis now boasts that on any given weekend, more theatre is performed on its stages than almost anywhere else in the country outside of New York. Most of these performances are produced by some of the most respected and active community theatre groups in the country, groups such as Theatre In The Round and the Playwrights' Lab, which regularly present area and world premieres of works by Edward Albee, Simon Gray, Mick Casale, John Olive, and Charles Nolte.

This example is not intended to imply that small college theatre directors can transform Casper, Wyoming, Waverly, Iowa, or Emmitsburg, Maryland, into the cultural centers of the United States, but it is possible, with the cooperation of artists in a community, to build that kind of audience. It is surprising, sometimes, to realize what can be accomplished -- a successful alliance. Devil's Lake, North Dakota, for example boasts a range of cultural activities usually found only in large cities. It has a community orchestra, a community chorus, a ballet company, two theatre companies, a community concert association, an artist-in-residency program with the local school system as well as Lake Region Community College, and an annual juried art show. The local movie house sponsored a classic film series served as a fund-raising event to support other artistic endeavors in the community. This plethora of cultural experiences became possible because Anne-Marit Bergstrom founded the Arts and Humanities Council to bring together different competing groups. "Once they came together," she said, "amazing things happened." Now the Council includes the editor of the town paper, the president of a local manufacturing concern, the president of the local community college the area superintendent of schools, as well as representatives of different artistic fields. The Council was diversified to keep the different groups from focusing too closely on their own specific needs and problems. "We want to always reach out to new audiences," she said. "There are only so many people who support the arts, only a certain percentage, and if you divide them up, it gets pretty small. But if you share them, you'd be surprised what can happen." As Bergstrom explains, "People respond to quality. If you give them more than they realize they want, they will become educated to want the best. People need enrichment just as a plant needs water.

Although they may appear to be strange bedfellows, a small college theatre program which cooperates with the community theatre can be the beginning of a new educational experience for all concerned.

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THE SMALL COLLEGE DIRECTOR OF FORENSICS

Deborah S. Ballard-Reisch

A former director of forensics once said, *When you work at a small college, it doesn't matter if what needs to be done is possible or not, you do it.* This paper reports on interviews with fifteen small college forensic directors who take that philosophy to heart. This paper will focus on the co-curricular responsibilities and the extra-curricular activities of small college forensic directors.

This study centers on active small college forensics programs. To isolate active programs, result sheets from the 1983-84 NFA and AFA national individual events tournaments and the 1985 Pi Kappa Delta national convention and tournament were examined and the schools attending were cross-referenced with The 1983-84 Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education Programs to find schools with populations of 3,000 students or fewer. The study focused on schools in the Midwest. Successful interviews were conducted with directors in Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio and Wisconsin. The sample contained fifteen schools: nine private colleges and six public. The schools in the sample ranged in size from 840 to 2,995 full-time students. While this is quite a range of enrollment, 3,000 students and fewer is the measure typically used to distinguish small schools. Although the sample is too small to obtain statistical significance, it does offer insight into a cross-section of successful small college programs. These interviews also served as the foundation for the development of a questionnaire to be mailed to a larger sample in the fall of 1985 in order to gain a more nationally representative response.

This paper explores the activities of small college forensic programs in terms of size of program, coaching demands, and travel. Then it examines the extra-curricular activities of the programs and their directors.

One might first ask, concerning small college forensics programs, just how active are they? Of the directors interviewed, all fifteen supported active individual events teams while nine also had active debate programs. Of the fifteen schools supporting IE, three attended both AFA and NFA nationals, five attended only NFA and seven supported only AFA. Seven of the schools are members of the Pi Kappa Delta speech honorary and two are members of DSR-TKA. Of the nine schools with active debate programs, two were committed to NDT debate, yet only one currently has an active program. The director of the active program expressed difficulty in getting students involved in NDT style debate. All nine schools supported the CEDA debate program and the general consensus was that CEDA was more practical for small college programs.

The 1983 NFA Economic Task Force reported that the average number of students involved in individual events in small college programs, those with enrollments of less than 5,000 students, was nine. Student participation in the programs reviewed in this study ranged from five active members to thirty-five active members. The average number of active competitors was fifteen. Ten schools made a distinction between active team members, those who travelled to five tournaments or more per year, and those schools which simply travelled at some time during the school year. One director indicated that he had team members who never travelled. With the number of students involved in programs, the question of coaching arises. The NFA Task Force reported that schools of under 5,000 students average one full-time instructor assigned to forensics with release time equivalent to one class per year. For this sample, coaches assigned to the program or voluntarily giving of their time ranged from one to three per school. The average across the schools was slightly more than one person per program, although nine of the schools had only one coach.

Schnoor (1984) reports that *61.5% of 200 schools studied grant the director of the forensic program some form of release time* (p 19). Directors in this sample either received no release time for their work or they received the equivalent of one course per term. Most of those who had assistants indicated that the assistants received either no release time or one course per year. While this average seems to be slightly higher than the task force report, it is important to note that the teams are slightly larger than expected as well. As a side note, the number of courses taught per year by these coaches varied considerably, particularly among schools on the semester system where faculty teach loads ranging from two to six courses per semester. At schools on the quarter system, teachers were responsible for either three or four courses per term.

With the number of students involved in small college programs as well as the scarcity of release time, amount of travel is of interest. The task force reported that small college teams travel to an average of nine tournaments per academic year. Exclusive of competition at national tournaments, teams in this study travel to between eight and twenty-two tournaments each season. The average is seventeen. The greatest frequency within the

sample was fifteen tournaments per season. Nine schools support either NFA or AFA annually while six reported attending both last year. Eleven of the schools belong to forensic honorary fraternities and had attended the most recent convention. Thus, every other year, the schools in this study attend two or three national tournaments. It is clear for this sample that participation in forensics is indeed very active.

In addition to the time spent in forensics, this paper set out to explore the co-curricular and extra-curricular activities in which the directors of forensics at small colleges involve themselves. There are four additional areas in which small college directors are active. They are on campus, with high schools in the area, within their communities, and professionally.

In addition to their teaching and coaching responsibilities, forensic directors and their teams are very active within the college community. They seem to have taken to heart the notion that diversity in forensics is the key to growth and educational value (Ballard-Reisch, 1984). Activities range from lectures and presentations in classes to monthly readings, debate forums, and annual showcases open to the college community.

Directors who lecture to other classes most often find themselves addressing political science and economics classes, as well as sociology and psychology classes. Student performances are common in oral interpretation and public speaking classes as well as political science and economics classes. One program sponsors monthly literature readings and debate forums during the school year. Two schools hold showcases prior to nationals so that the academic community can see what the program actually does. One director hosts a summer workshop for college faculty aimed at the improvement of communication skills in the classroom.

Beyond activities related to forensics, a number of directors lecture to classes about their area of specialization. All are active on campus as academic advisors for students and in college committee work. Three of the forensic directors interviewed are currently chairpersons of their departments.

Area high schools also provide an opportunity for involvement of college forensic directors. Those interviewed are very active in the high schools in their area. Ten of the fifteen schools host at least one high school tournament per year; seven host individual events tournaments, one hosts a debate tournament and two host combined debate and IE tournaments. Ten coaches reported that they judge regularly at high school tournaments they do not host.

Beyond hosting tournaments and judging, a number of the college coaches and their students are active in high school forensics in other ways. Five reported that their students help coach high school teams. Five schools report that they provide forensic workshops for area high schools and four are involved in summer institutes. In addition, three directors lecture to area high schools throughout the year on topics related to their areas of specialization.

Small college forensics directors and their students not only are active on campus and at area high schools, but also are active within the community at large. Seven of the schools do student and/or director programs for service organizations ranging from Toastmasters and Rotary Clubs to senior citizen centers and the Women's League. Eight of the coaches are involved in consulting and/or provide workshops on speaking and presentation skills to area professionals.

All fifteen directors are actively involved in professional organizations as well and attend an average of one professional meeting per year. Five coaches noted that they typically present at least one paper at each convention they attend. Forensics directors interviewed clearly match their commitment to forensics with their involvement in extra-curricular and co-curricular activities within their academic community, the community at large, and the profession.

Within a small college setting, it is important that any program--academic, athletic, or social--be able to justify its existence not only in terms of what it offers the students involved but also in what is offers the institution and the community. In a time when established programs of every type must fight for a limited number of dollars and students, it is interesting to note what directors of fifteen active small college forensics programs obviously believe that diversity of approach is the best way to guarantee the longevity of a small college forensics program.

While they may not represent the average small college director of forensics, the coaches in this study, as well as their practices, offer insights into how a small program can handle the economic situation as well as the educational needs of the students in their programs. As Schnoor points out, *It is important that the funding agencies be made aware of the returns to an institution that has an active forensics program. . .Returns are not limited to just those students involved in participation, but extend to the university and community in general* (p. 19).

With tightening budget limitations, forensics programs must be able to justify their existence on some basis other than advantages to the small number of students involved or to success in terms of awards. These directors, while showing us the scope and depth of co-curricular and extra-curricular activities in which they are involved, offer directors of other programs the hope of success through diversification. The students, the college community, the municipality, the area high schools, and the speech communication field all benefit from their efforts.

The time demands are clearly heavy. Yet, small college teachers and coaches must be able to approach their jobs with energy and with an ability to adapt. The NFA task force showed more conservative travel and coaching patterns than were supported through these interviews but the diversity of approach is consistent with the suggestions of Schnoor and the Forensic Development Conference in terms of making programs educationally valuable and economically stable.

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INTEGRATING FORENSICS INTO THE CURRICULUM

Jay G. VerLinden

A chemistry major will, in addition to regular classes, be required to complete laboratory assignments. Those laboratory experiences augment what is taught in lectures. In them they learn how to design experiments and how to use the tools of their discipline. All this is done under faculty supervision. Laboratory experiences help the chemistry student know more about chemistry.

Speech communication students also learn from a laboratory experience, one which is not often used by most small departments: intercollegiate forensics. In contrast to a chemistry lab, however, the forensics program is treated as a frill. College administrators who would not think of eliminating a science laboratory perceive forensics as an activity that is acceptable but quite expendable. Regardless of why that perception exists, small departments should do more to integrate forensics programs into their curricula.

This paper argues that a forensics program in a small deaprtment should be treated as an integral part of the speech curriculum and suggests what forensics directors, department administrators, and other faculty members in the small department should do to achieve that goal. Forensics can be a significant part of the education of both speech majors and non-majors. Individual events programs will be discussed here, but many of the same advantages would also result from an active debate program.

A good forensics program augments the educational benefits of a speech curriculum. Students learn to select, to analyze, and to organize their material in an attempt to fulfill various rhetorical strategies. They must think about what it takes to create a presentation. As speech majors, students are expected to make sense and speak with greater confidence and poise than do other students. The experience gained while participating in a forensics program can help students gain this credibility.

Tournament competition often motivates students to perform differently than does classroom speaking. Students enjoy performing at contests, particularly when the emphasis is on the performance rather than a judge's response.

In competition students get the benefit of criticism from a variety of qualified sources who may be sensitive to different communication variables than the members of the department in which the student is taught. Students thus can be exposed to a wider range of views concerning their work.

The director of forensics has the primary responsibility for ensuring the program is an integral part of the department curriculum and is a way of meeting the educational goals of the department. There are four steps the director of forensics can take to achieve integration.

First, the director should discuss with each student the advantages forensics participation has for that individual and then channel that student into events that best meet established goals.

Whether students engage in many events or only one, the important point is that the students are made aware of how participation in forensics can meet educational goals and can help prepare them for the future. In that way students come to see forensics as related to the rest of the speech communication curriculum.

Second, the director should set educational goals for the forensics program as though it were a regular course. Such goals can give direction to both the director and the students involved. These goals should be realistic and may need to be set for each individual student. And, they should reflect the continued progression of the student's education.

Third, the forensics director should deemphasize the acquisition of awards as a result of participation. This does not mean that students who win in competition should not be recognized, but rather that the winning of awards should not be the prime reason for the activity. When trophies become all-important students do less to achieve their long term goals and more on how to win, too often resulting in doing what is safe and common in competition rather than striving for creative and artistic excellence. Focusing attention on winning can lead to the kinds of practices that cause department colleagues to despair that forensics teaches artifice that is contrary to their efforts in the classroom. Rhetorical and artistic excellence should be emphasized; winning should take care of itself.

Fourth, the director should discuss with students tournament results, keeping educational goals in mind. A judge's comments should be considered in light of what a student was attempting rather than how the student was ranked. Discussing results is a tremendous opportunity to instill the values of intellectual honesty and artistic integrity. Students must learn to decide when to accept comments and adapt to them and when to recognize com-

ments as irrelevant. Discussing results in terms of how the comments relate to principles taught in classes or principles the student has yet to encounter will help the student see the activity as something related to the rest of the departmental curriculum.

The department chair should act to make the forensics program a valuable part of the curriculum instead of merely an extra activity. This can be done by promoting the activity to the college administration as educational rather than only competitive. A chair must be able to explain to deans and presidents how students involved in forensics add to their classroom experience and how the forensics director can make the program a sound educational experience. If a program is justified because the students are winning, it is unlikely to be perceived as a vital part of an academic discipline. If budgets are based on how many trophies are won, then pressure mounts to win trophies instead of educating students. If the only recognition a program gets comes from success in competition, the director and students will soon learn to emphasize winning, at the expense of education. The educational values can be stressed by noting student involvement, recognizing improvement by students, and by acknowledging the amount of time spent by the director of forensics working with students.

The department chair and other faculty members also can help make forensics an integral part of the department curriculum by recognizing the students who participate. Such recognition does not have to be anything more than simply acknowledging students who were in a tournament, or sending them a memo expressing the importance of their involvement. While acknowledgment can involve congratulating students for their competitive success, it also can stress the educational value of forensics and not be limited to the results of competition. Faculty can help by verbally supporting the forensics program to other students.

Finally, the members of a small department can take opportunities to help prepare students in participation. There is no doubt that some speech faculty dislike forensics because they believe it often promotes incorrect values. There are many in the forensics community who would agree. Rather than avoid forensics, however, a better strategy is to instill values in the students and to try to improve the activity. This is easier to accomplish when other faculty are helping guide the students.

In departments where these suggestions are not already being followed their implementation will require cooperation among all the members of the department who must agree on the place of forensics in the curriculum, the educational values the program should promote, the relationship of forensics to the goals of the students, and the emphasis for both the students and the college.

It may take some time to change the current beliefs of the forensics director, other faculty members, and other members of the college, but the results of such efforts will be valuable to the students and to the department.

SMALL COLLEGE DEBATE: A TERMINATION DECISION

Peter L. Settle

An intercollegiate debate program stretching back over more than seventy-five years creates a tradition not easily ignored. Still, tradition aside, the realities of coaching debate and forensics in the tight budget days of the 70's and 80's have a way of forcing themselves to the fore. Limitations on students, on faculty, and on budgets do not suddenly become larger as the tradition grows longer. The following is an account of how one small department reached a decision to terminate a long-standing debate and forensic program and the impact that decision had on department and college-wide concerns.

Some background information seems appropriate in order to understand the decision. With some variance, the administration had been supportive. The program was one that had been relatively successful in terms of recruiting students, a rather important factor at a small, private, liberal arts institution. Forensic faculty had been hired with the regular expectation (though not always fulfilled) that tenure was possible. Financial support, though not unlimited by any means, was certainly adequate for administrative expectations. The department had been supportive of the program and its directors. Departmental resources that could be made available were in fact regularly made available including the time and effort of other faculty, often without any compensation. Departmental decisions regularly reflected the interests of an ongoing debate and forensic program.

In many respects the situation was ideal; that is what made the decision to terminate so difficult. This particular situation had none of the usual flaws that can doom a debate program. Funding, staffing, and attitudinal support were present at reasonable levels. Why, then, was a decision made to terminate the program? The answer lies at three different levels: personal, departmental, and institutional.

The director of forensics had served for seven years at the time the decision to disengage in intercollegiate debate and forensics was made. When employed, the director had a Master's degree with the expectation of completion of a doctoral degree in a fairly reasonable amount of time. Since the position had a full teaching load and a premium was placed on teaching communication, concentration on doctoral responsibilities began to conflict with full-time directing of the program. In short, the load became substantially heavier than was anticipated.

The question became one of the conflict between full-time teaching responsibility and full-time directorship. It is not an unusual problem. Its answer is found in the way in which faculty utilization is determined. Given a limited number of faculty and a growing department, does an institution place a higher priority on the investment made in a teaching faculty member or in the maintenance of a program? One answer is to fund an additional position. However, that was not likely in the face of limited resources. Another possibility was to eliminate the program. That was the option selected.

At a personal level, both an individual and a department need to consider the impact of a forensic program. Travel, family ties, and teaching responsibilities are interrelated in intercollegiate forensics. The demands are heavy. Simply put, commitments and interests change over the years.

The department involved had grown from twenty-five majors in 1974 to more than 100 in 1985. An emphasis that has grown within the department is organizational communication. In this instance, the department dictated that the director of forensics head that program. As the program grew, both the forensic and the organizational programs suffered from lack of attention. Resources were simply stretched too thin. A decision on the nature of the departmental program became necessary. Did the department place greater emphasis on academic or extracurricular educational forms? The first remedy is to expand the faculty to preserve both programs. This was not possible at the time. A second option is to attempt to squeeze more out of one position. A third option is to redefine the role; the route this department chose. In comparing department and institution goals, the organizational program had more widespread benefit. That had to be balanced somehow relative to the individual and institutional benefits to a smaller group of students in the forensic program. In the end, the benefit of maintaining the forensic program was overshadowed by the necessity to provide a comprehensive organizational communication program for a larger number of students. The perennial problem of limited resources is typified in this case. There was little departmental argument concerning the benefits of either the organizational or the forensic program. The decision was made on the belief that student interests were best served by channeling effort and resources into academic areas rather than into extracurricular areas, although no denial of extracurricular benefit was seen or intended.

With personal and departmental decisions reached in favor of the termination of the program, the greatest resistance to the change came from the administration. Administrators (deans, vice-presidents, etc.) indicated a reluctance to drop the program. It was felt that substantial educational, financial, and public relations benefits might be lost to a less traditional, less visible program. The college had to be convinced of the efficacy of the move.

First, the program had always resulted in a financial loss to the college. Second, few students entered as freshmen for the purpose of engaging in forensics: it was an ancillary, although positive factor. And, third, no forensics scholarship awards were made, no money for tuition grants was available, so no effect would be felt by the students. The administration, however, had to be persuaded as to the potential growth of the organizational program. The presumed public relations loss (particularly among alumni) was minimized. In the end, those ultimately responsible for the decision (the academic dean, etc.) agreed that the benefits of termination exceeded those of continuation.

There always is a desire to maintain any established program. Yet, with personal and departmental decisions made to expand responsibilities in academic areas, the decision to terminate was justified. Since no additional faculty were to be added, the preservation and expansion of the academic program over the extracurricular program was perceived as most beneficial to all concerned.

Departmentally, no negative effects from the program termination were apparent. Though the debate and forensic oriented students were lost, compensation was made through an active organizational communication program. At this point the department does not intend to reinstitute an intercollegiate debate and forensic program.

Institutionally there was concern about two things, the growth of the organizational program and the reaction of alumni. The organizational program has been more than justified by the interest shown among students and there has been no reaction from the alumni. In times of economic distress among small colleges, it is indeed difficult to argue for spending rather large sums of money on comparatively few students. The department clearly has spent less and done a valuable service for many more students as a result of the termination.

Three areas should be evaluated in making decisions concerning the termination of a forensic program. The individual who serves as director of forensics needs to assess personal motivations to continue, to assess competing academic interests, and to assess a future role in the department and the institution. If a director determines both the desire to stay at the institution in an academic role and the impossiblity of doing both the academic role and the forensic role, then some action must be taken.

The director also needs to discuss with the department the need for the academic position relative to the forensic position. If it is decided that the benefit of the academic role is substantial then the first course is to seek an additional faculty slot for forensics. Failing this, termination must be considered.

And, the institution needs to be convinced that academically and financially no damage will accrue to the institution and that benefit from a new or expanded program will in fact take place.

In the case outlined above, a long tradition in intercollegiate debate was scrapped in favor of an academic program. One is tempted to respond what a shame! Quite so. It is a decision not to be taken lightly but one that will become increasingly necessary.

DISCIPLINARY INTEGRITY, CREDIBILITY, AND SCHOLARLY ACTIVITY: SMALL COLLEGE REVISITED

Peter L. Settle

The dichotomy of teaching and research functions always have caused problems for the small college program. Miller describes the dichotomy as the problem of the local versus the cosmopolitan. The local remains true to the teaching function while the cosmopolitan seeks the excitement of the research atmosphere. The concern for the small college communication program, however, goes well beyond this dichotomy.

Showalter argues that *like all other academic institutions, the liberal arts college is coming to terms with the dual effect on its faculty of a declining job market and more job seekers* (p. 166). Job market changes or not, people in small colleges must and do teach. That teaching ought to reflect the best judgments concerning the content of a discipline. Judgments concerning the discipline would, it is hoped, be based on an examination of present trends, past trends, current research, and departmental/institutional goals. If it is true that one should be concerned with developments within a field, with what and how to teach, then at least two questions need to be considered. First, how can the disciplinary integrity and credibility of a small college program be determined? And second, how can the disciplinary integrity and credibility of a small college program be maintained? The purpose of this paper is to re-examine observations made several years ago at an SCA national convention. It may be that conditions have changed.

Evaluation of credibility and integrity cannot be wholly separate from maintenance issues. A program is evaluated in order to maintain it and the way in which it is maintained indicates something of how it is evaluated. Evaluation, as used here, refers to the process of determining curricular fidelity, the active comparison of a program's scope, content, and goals with both similar and dissimilar programs, departments, and institutions. Integrity, then, involves the relative fidelity of the program to departmental goals and national trends.

If a department curriculum deviates significantly from apparent disciplinary trends without purpose, the fidelity and integrity are less than they should be. A curriculum certainly does not have to follow short-term trends, much less be faddish in nature. However, if it deviates significantly for less than desirable reasons, the integrity can be questioned. A relative notion of what might be done should be established without the prescriptive assumption that a program in a small college ought to do what other institutions are doing.

Given limited personnel and resources, the problem for a small college is one of obtaining reliable data on disciplinary trends. Comparative data have traditionally been gathered by doing scholarly research, attending professional meetings and seminars, completing graduate and post-graduate study, maintaining personal reading, engaging in discussion with colleagues, and a host of other less formal possibilities. Rapid variation in disciplinary trends now makes the problem more serious and solution more difficult.

A common means of attempting to stay current is through personal reading and attendance at professional meetings. The personal research one does is valuable and necessary but insufficient to meet credibility and integrity goals. Miller argues that *every college teacher needs to be an occasional, if modest, producer of research or creative work in his field ...a careful and systematic student of the research and creativity of others--and this involves more than a casual reading of scholarly journals* (p. 18).

Unfortunately, attendance at professional meetings can be costly. In the communication discipline there are a variety of annual meetings that might prove of interest. SCA, ATA, ICA, regionals, and special interest groups such as IABC and state associations provide a minimum of contacts per year. Annual dues are usually an expense beyond that of attendance. There is a wide variation in the support that institutions give faculty for such travel and there is a variation in personal ability to fund travel. In short, resources often are too little to cover the full range of possibilities. We are thus placed in something of a Catch 22 situation. The discipline continues to grow and change while the small college program often faces impending retrenchment and diminished resources. In short, it is rapidly becoming more difficult for small college faculty to acquire the kinds of information necessary to maintain and develop suitable programs. It should be noted, of course, that these problems are not unique to small colleges. However, if it is true that the primary sources for research and the development of new information lie elsewhere, then small colleges are at least one step further removed from information sources.

Miller noted, *either some direct research or systematic study of the research of others seems essential if one is to stay abreast of any field of endeavor...the obsolescence of knowledge in almost all fields is taking place at a rapid and accelerating pace* (pp. 17-18). He made that evaluation prior to the widespread influx of the microcomputer and related services. Unfortunately, the institutional and

personal resources available for a full comparative evaluation in the traditional ways are diminishing. Scholarly research by the faculty of the small college is necessary for professional advancement and for teaching effectiveness. It is essential to establish credibility and integrity. Still, general research activity is not overwhelmingly high. Centra notes *the 1977 survey of the American Professoriate by Ladd and Lipset which found that 29 percent had never published an article and 60 percent had never published more than four articles.* He goes on to indicate that *the advancement of the knowledge function, no doubt a crucial purpose of higher education thus is carried out by fewer than half of all college professors, and a relatively small portion of these seem to contribute truly significant work in their fields* (pp. 11-14). If it is true that those in the small college situation tend to do less than their university counterparts, then the outlook is less than bright.

Original research is a major area of consideration. Interest in doing research must be assumed at the individual level; however, the problem at the samll college often has been both economics and opportunity.

While a university has a pool of graduate students who may assist, the small college does not, and money may be somewhat more limited. For the small college three areas may offer relief: various grant programs, periodic scheduling of course offerings, and departmental sabbaticals.

Money is available. While not all small colleges have a grants specialist; the process of searching out and applying for grants ranging from a few hundred to a few thousand dollars is not impossible. Often small colleges have modest faculty development programs that can provide funding for some projects. The cost to the institution is small and the benefits substantial.

By restructuring the frequency of course offerings and by scheduling courses in concentrated ways, substantial amounts of time can be created for research work. As an adjunct to periodic course offerings, agreements within departments concerning temporary courseloads can provide additional release time. For example, if a normal semester load is three courses, one course might be scheduled for a fall instead of a spring semester to achieve a four-two arrangement. Additionally, in exchange for more free time, one professor may pick up the course of another to make the effective load four and one. By internal agreements a professor receives two-thirds release time for one semester. While the most desirable format is still full release time with institutional support, a creative alternative can be used where no other alternative available.

Evaluation of external disciplinary trends is perhaps more difficult to achieve. With limited resources it often is not possible for all faculty to attend all professional meetings. Potential sources of relief include regional seminars, resource pooling, and departmental seminars.

Regional resource pooling involves the acquisition of research results and the availability of research programs in a highly limited geographic area. In essence, departments and colleges can reach reasonable agreements concerning library resources, course sharing, and special programming that can range from very informal to complex agreements. There are some ticklish questions involved in program sharing, particularly concerning the faculty, but the possibility is a real and viable one. Pooling will be most effective in areas with a fairly high concentration of institutions. When there are numerous institutions nearby, it becomes possible to share internship placements, research interests, and research results with students and faculty from colleges in the area. The state associations and interest groups could have a particularly visible role in the organization of such efforts.

Regional and departmental seminars, usually public and free, provide both students and faculty additional opportunity to share developments in the field. Regularly scheduled career seminars in communication in which speakers including alumni, visiting faculty from the area, and persons from without academia add to the content of the curricula. Of course, options such as sharing expertise through guest lecturers hold much merit.

A final resource of rather low cost stems from the growth of computerization. Electronic mailboxes, teleconferencing networks, and research services can be used to speed and reduce the costs of establishing credibility. It is not uncommon for a number of faculty in diverse areas often far away, to converse via the computer terminal. Sharing brief research ideas is made easy and rapid. Research services that can sort enormous amounts of material into neat packages are of tremendous benefit to the researcher. One might miss the drudgery of countless hours in a library but time is unquestionably saved and the cost is not prohibitive.

The goal of faculty development in the small college is strongly related to establishing the credibility of programs. It seems clear that resources are diminished relative to costs and that the necessity for evaluation is increasing not decreasing. Relief for the problems of maintaining departmental integrity within the discipline probably will take the form of innovative uses of existing resources, sharing of information in limited geographic areas, and the increased use of non-traditional funding and release programs. The possibilities of electronic information sharing, while in infancy perhaps, show enormous potential for the future.

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EMPIRICAL NEEDLES IN CURRICULAR HAYSTACKS: FINDING RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES IN A SMALL COLLEGE PROGRAM

David Droge

When I was in graduate school, one year my office-mate was a woman who, like me, had entered the PhD program after some teaching experience. On more than one dark Midwest winter day, one or the other of us would return from a particularly grueling seminar and glance wearily at the other. That glance would be a cue for us to think: "Why are we doing this to ourselves? We just want to teach speech?"

Four years ago I left that program and began teaching in a small, private liberal arts college. I soon found that teaching speech in this setting carried its own set of frustrations. In this paper I would like to describe some of the sources of those frustrations and the means I use to combine teaching with the opportunity to conduct empirical research. I hope that the strategies I developed can establish some broad guidelines for others who want to combine teaching and research in a small college program.

The first source of frustration is the teaching load. At the University of Puget Sound faculty are expected to teach three courses each semester and to offer a "Winterim" course during the month of January. Further, the university has established "teaching effectiveness" as the primary criterion for tenure and promotion, and student evaluations are used in the assessment of teaching effectiveness. Consequently, students demand a great deal of personal attention and enter the classroom with high expectations. That those expectations often reflect a desire to be entertained does not diminish the potential impact of student ratings. Hence, class preparation begins to demand an extraordinary amount of time and energy. In addition, my institution is committed to "Writing Across the Curriculum" as a means of improving the universally-lamented state of student prose. Careful attention to style, construction, grammar, and spelling while grading student papers is an important but time-consuming consequence of this commitment. Preparation for courses and grading papers soon began to devour more and more of my time.

Not only is a higher quantity of teaching expected in the small college setting than in major research universities, but the nature of the department's role in the institution also constrains available research and teaching opportunities. In the communication and theatre arts department approximately two-thirds of the teaching load is in introductory courses which fulfill a university-wide oral communication requirement. This service component seriously limits opportunities to teach specialized seminars in one's own research interest area. The emphasis on service combines with a heavy teaching load and relatively small number of colleagues to prevent extensive discussion of journal articles and research ideas with other faculty in the department. As a member of the philosophy department stated: *When I was in graduate school, there were forty other people interested in my topic area. Here, nobody else is interested in what I am.* When a department consists of one speech pathologist, one applied organizational communication specialist, one debate coach/rhetorical critic, and one interpersonal communication/group process/empirical research methods/communication theory specialist, the opportunities for productive discussion of readings and research areas are severely limited.

The emphasis on teaching in the small college program also limits the support services available for research. Secretaries spend their time preparing course materials, rather than manuscripts. Work-study students who can assist in conducting studies are not in the budget. Funded research is rare, and computer facilities can be woefully inadequate.

Finally, the small college program typically requires faculty members to be the academic advisors of a number of students and to participate in faculty governance, which usually means serving on committees. This combination of demands and restraints kindled in me an unexpected nostalgia for the "good old days" of graduate school. I missed the heady debates over metatheoretical positions in communication theory. My fingers ached for the touch of a computer terminal. I began to see students less and less as minds eager for learning and more and more as lost subjects who would never fill out a questionnaire for me. I discovered that my graduate school experience had spoiled me. Teaching speech was not enough.

Rather than succumb to those yearnings for days gone by or engage in a flurry of job-hunting activity for a position with more research opportunities, I decided to make the best of a difficult situation. I

undertook the task of carving out research opportunities in this environment. I hope that this achievement might provide encouragement to others who want to conduct research in the small college setting.

I have achieved some successful beginnings in four areas. First, I have been able to introduce courses with a research component. Curricular innovation initially seemed to be the most profitable strategy. Given the quantity of teaching demanded in the small college, incorporating research into regular course offerings seemed an easy way to open up these opportunities. In the Spring of 1980 I was able to entice a colleague into team-teaching a senior seminar called "Media Strategies in the 1980 Primary Campaign." A major project for this class was the completion of data collection for an interview study of the relationship between media use and attendance at precinct caucuses, which in Washington state constitute the first step in the process of selecting delegates for the national nominating conventions. Students in this seminar developed into a research team. We designed research questions, perfected a questionnaire, and conducted a two-wave telephone survey. Unfortunately, the university's lack of adequate computer hardware prevented our analyzing the results during the seminar.

My experience with the seminar, however, was somewhat unsettling. Most of the students in the senior-level course had little familiarity with the appropriate journals, treated the reference library as if it were a foreign country, and had no training in statistical analysis. Clearly a weakness in our program had surfaced. Not only were our seniors emerging from the communication program with serious deficiencies in their knowledge and skills base, but also they were of relatively small value as collaborators in empirical research. I felt a need to improve students' competence in this area. The easiest solution was the inauguration of a research methods course. In the small college setting, however, new courses are scrutinized by a university-wide committee concerned that limited teaching resources not be expended in courses which duplicate content. Since research methods courses in psychology and sociology were already on the books, the challenge was to develop a course which was both valuable and unique.

The emergence of a series of texts which approached research methods from a consumer's perspective (e.g., Katzer, Cook, & Crouch, 1982) led to the development of Communication Research Methods. The course was first offered in the Fall of 1981; eight students enrolled. One year later seventeen students enrolled in the course, which has become an annual offering.

The second strategy was to explore the possibility of inter-disciplinary research with colleagues in other departments. One of the facts of life at a small college is that one interacts frequently with faculty from other disciplines. I discovered that faculty in other social science disciplines experienced the same sense of isolation I had.

My own achievement in this area has been based, again, on the assumption that research opportunities are most likely to occur in the small college setting when they are incorporated into regular courses. In the Fall of 1982 the University upgraded its computer capacity by purchasing a larger mainframe computer. This upgrade was accompanied by a complete SPSS software package. Because I had been involved as an advocate for upgraded computing facilities and as an early user of the SPSS program, I was able to argue successfully for release time to serve as a consultant to other faculty who wished to incorporate SPSS into research methods courses. My activites involved guest lectures in sociology and economics classes and tutorial sessions for psychology and education faculty. In the course of this assignment, obviously, opportunities for joint research can emerge in informal conversations.

The third strategy is maintaining links within the profession. Obviously, one continues to participate in professional associations through convention attendance and through the journals. What should not be overlooked is that the faculty in one's graduate program, in particular the dissertation director, can continue to be a source of support and collaboration. Timely letters and telephone calls, willingness to solicit respondents for surveys, planning time to catch up at professional meetings--these activities continually remind me that the relationship between a major professor and a doctoral candidate need not terminate when the degree is awarded. Despite the inadequacies of the University's computer facilities, I was able to complete the analysis for the study of media use and caucus participation at Northwestern University. Without the co-operation of faculty there, that survey might never have been analyzed.

The final strategy has been the most gratifying. This year, for the first time since I arrived at the University, I am working with students who are conducting their own research. One of our honors students is completing an undergraduate thesis on communication networks in the honors program. I am serving as a member of a thesis committee for a student completing a Master's program in occupational therapy. Other students are contemplating independent research projects which they hope to conduct next year. Those of us who choose to teach in a small college program do so in large part because we are committed to teaching. To the extent that the discipline which characterizes careful research can be passed on to our students, the research enterprise can become a valuable teaching tool.

In this paper I have tried to demonstrate that teaching in a small college and conducting research are not mutually exclusive. My overall strategy has been to utilize the emphasis on teaching which characterizes small college programs to build research into this environment. Whatever success I have achieved in this undertaking has been largely the result of the freedom I have been afforded by my colleagues in the department.

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THE CLINICAL SUPERVISION OF TEACHING IN THE SMALL COLLEGE COMMUNICATION DEPARTMENT

Ellen Hay

One of the many tasks which department administrators must perform is the supervision and evaluation of faculty teaching. This is often a difficult and threatening process for both administrators and faculty members. While such evaluation is intended to promote effective teaching, it usually does little more than identify those instructors who are incompetent. For good instructors little motivation is given for improvement of classroom teaching.

To avoid the pitfalls inherent in instructional supervision, many elementary and secondary school administrators have adopted the clinical approach to the supervision of teaching. Clinical supervision is "a structured system of observing and conferring with teachers" (Goldsberry, p. 13). It involves a five step process which helps faculty and administrators focus upon specific teaching behaviors which increase student learning. Such an approach is ideally suited for small college communication administrators. Thus, this paper will present a description of the process and a consideration of its advantages and disadvantages to demonstrate the value of clinical supervision.

The concepts of clinical supervision were first developed in the 1950's. It was not until the mid-1970's, however, that it became a popular alternative to more traditional supervisory models. The basic premise of the approach is that instructors want to improve teaching, not through a prescription imposed by an administrator, but rather through a cooperative effort in which the faculty member is responsible for identifying and correcting teaching behaviors which do not support student learning.

In order to facilitate this process, a five step cycle is used (Synder, 1981). First, the instructor and supervisor meet in a preobservation conference. The instructor selects a particular teaching behavior which is of concern. If the instructor is having difficulty identifying a specific behavior, the supervisor might suggest consideration of some of the behaviors described in the effective teaching research (Rosenshine, 1971). During this conference, the instructor and administrator agree upon how this critical behavior will be assessed and work out any other problems which can be foreseen. For example, the faculty member might express concern over relying too much on the lecture method in presenting concepts. The faculty member could indicate a desire to add more varied methods, and the administrator and faculty member would then agree that the administrator should first observe a class to determine how much time is spent lecturing.

During the second phase, the evaluator observes in the classroom and collects data on the desired behavior. This should be done using a systematic format which provides an accurate reflection of the behavior. A formal observation strategy such as the Flanders Analysis or the Bales Analysis might be used. The evaluator might try to record verbatim as many behaviors as possible. In the above example of lecture behavior, a Bales Analysis would provide a clear record of the type of verbal interaction that was occurring in the classroom. It would indicate who was sending and receiving opinions, information, and questions along with other positive and negative behaviors.

The third step calls for the evaluator to analyze the data which has been gathered. The evaluator interprets what has been observed and identifies any patterns that emerge. It is important for the evaluator to keep the target behavior in focus rather than imposing concerns about other instructor behaviors which were observed. The Bales Analysis used in the lecture example might have indicated that the instructor initially asked questions during the class sessions but then tended to fall into the pattern of only giving information with little response coming from students. During this phase the administrator also must design a strategy for presenting the analysis to the faculty member in a manner which will facilitate acceptance and the consequent change in teaching behavior. Usually this requires that the administrator carefully consider the faculty member's personality and the climate which needs to be established in the conference.

Step four is the post-observation conference where the evaluator and instructor share their impressions of the visit. The administrator provides feedback on the observation and suggests steps which might be taken for the continued improvement of instruction. Together the evaluator and instructor agree upon an action plan that will facilitate growth and will include future supervision cycles. The plan for the lecture example might include two phases. First, the evaluator could suggest that the instructor read an article on questioning the techniques and attempt to implement these techniques. Second, the evaluator might suggest that the instructor design two activities which will illustrate a particular concept to be presented in the classroom. Evaluator and instructor would agree to a return class visit in two weeks to assess the effectiveness of these

Finally, the instructor and evaluator analyze and critique the supervision cycle. This critique studies the usefulness of the process and identifies strengths and weaknesses which resulted from its implementation. This critique should assist improving future supervision cycles. In the example the critique might indicate that the Bales Analysis did not provide enough specific information thus, another data gathering instrument would be chosen for future observations.

According to Noreen Garmen in an article in the *1982 ASCD Yearbook*, this supervision process should promote deeper collegial and collaborative relationships between administrators and faculty members and should provide both with a better understanding of educational encounters. Research on this process reviewed by Reavis (1978) suggested that this approach to supervision was preferred by instructors, encouraged more positive verbal behaviors in administrator/instructor conferences, and supported change in teaching behaviors.

As is evident from this description of the clinical supervision process, this approach is adaptable to any discipline in any size college or university. For a variety of reasons, however, it is ideally suited to the small college communication administrator.

The first reason that clinical supervision is relevant to the small college setting stems from the emphasis that most small colleges place on teaching. While research and service are encouraged at small colleges, the primary mission of such institutions is teaching and direct contact with students. Small colleges pride themselves on small classes where students receive quality instruction. The clinical supervision process allows such goals to become more than just promises in the college catalogue. It provides a means for actually improving instruction by faculty at all levels. While it requires an atmosphere where faculty can admit their teaching is not perfect and where faculty can indicate a desire to improve teaching, once such an atmosphere is established the clinical model provides the mechanism for continued development as an educator. Faculty members are encouraged to consider changes in their teaching behaviors which will increase student learning. Faculty and administrators creatively explore teaching behaviors which are more effective.

Another unique feature of the small college is the limited size of departmental faculty. While no agreed upon definition exists for the small college, usually those individuals who see themselves as members of such institutions function in departments of five individuals or less. The size of small college departments necessitates that faculty work closely with one another in establishing interpersonal relationships which are positive and friendly. For the administrators of such departments, evaluation and supervision can be viewed as a threat to these interpersonal relationships. As a result, evaluation is frequently downplayed and administrators are sensitive to the ramifications of appraisal techniques. While truly inept instructors are generally recognized and removed, good instructors are given little opportunity to become better. The clinical supervision process helps avoid this situation . Since it is a clearly defined process which requires the individual faculty members to determine improvements which are desired, it is far less threatening than more traditional evaluation procedures. It is a means for all members of a department to improve their teaching without jeopardizing their relationships. If improved teaching is a goal of all faculty, then the clinical supervision process is a means of achieving that goal.

While the first two reasons indicate the suitability of the clinical supervision process to the small college, the question still remains, "Why the communication department?" The communication department is in a unique position to demonstrate the effectiveness of this process to others. Much of the clinical approach relies upon communication for its success. The quality of the relationship which is established between evaluator and instructor rests with the ability to interact. Together they must identify verbal and nonverbal behaviors which facilitate instruction. They must devise a means of studying these behaviors and design a strategy for modifying some of them. Communication educators have the necessary understanding of verbal and nonverbal behavior to initiate this process. Their ability to participate in interactions, to observe interactions, and to interpret such interactions already is developed. This means that not only are communication faculty members able to better themselves, but also they can serve as role models for other department faculty who express a similar desire for improvement.

The benefits of the clinical supervision model should now be evident. However, there are obstacles which must be overcome if the process is to be implemented successfully.

First, it needs to be clear that this process is different and separate from evaluation which occurs for the purposes of tenure and promotion. The intent of the clinical process must be the improvement of teaching. The data which is gathered for this reason should not serve as a tool in judging teaching effectiveness. While not all administrators agree (Ness, 1980), it is apparent that uses of clinical data for tenure and promotion assessments create the sort of threatening atmosphere which was alluded to earlier. For the process to improve instruction, instructors must feel free to share weaknesses. This will not occur if such weaknesses are used against the instructor. Faculty must accept the idea that they are working to provide the best possible instruction to students If this is not the established goal, the success of the clinical process is doubtful.

Second, it is obvious that the clinical supervision process demands a substantial time commitment. With the other duties of the small college administrator, it may not be possible to participate in an ongoing supervision cycle with several faculty members. The answer in this case may be for the administrator to coordinate a peer supervision strategy. Each faculty member would have a colleague to serve as a teaching mentor and to function in the role of evaluator. While this peer approach has not worked in every situation (McFaul & Cooper, 1984), Krajewski maintains that, *when properly introduced and implemented, clinical supervision if built on an existing support system, can*

be a powerful force as well (p. 11).

Third, those involved in clinical supervision must be trained in the process. Most speech educators are subject area specialists who have had only a limited exposure to pedagogy. So that each step in the process is fully understood, participants should consider training programs offered by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development or by a department of educational administration. Many educational innovations have failed to realize their potential because participants have taken short cuts in preparing to implement such innovations. As Goldsberry notes, *probably the most common downfall of attempts to initiate clinical supervision is the lack of direct attention to readiness. Teachers and supervisors alike must be prepared for clinical supervision. Preparation in procedures and rationale for the approach is essential to acquire a conceptual grasp of clinical supervision; practice and feedback are necessary for applying these concepts.* (p. 14)

As the number of college age students decreases, the competition between schools for students increases as does the competition between departments for majors. The small communication department will benefit if it can demonstrate to college administrators, to colleagues and to perspective students that it actively works to provide the best possible instruction. In adopting the clinical supervision model, members of a communication department can point to the process that they use to improve their teaching. The change, however, will be most dramatic in the classroom where the results of this process are put to use. Students will profit from the modifications to teaching behaviors which promote learning. Faculty will profit from the renewed vitality which accompanies adopting effective teaching as an attainable goal.

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THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 7

13TH ANNUAL SEMINAR
EVALUATION OF PROGRAMS

8:30 a.m.	Registration and Coffee	Columbine Room Radisson
9:00 a.m.	WELCOME and INTRODUCTIONS: *Paul W. Batty*, Parkland College President, ACA	
9:15 a.m. - 10:45 a.m.	SESSION ONE: Accountability and Evaluation Integrity in Communication Curricula, *Stanley F. Paulson*, Vice President, Association of American Colleges A Discipline at Risk, *Stanley G. Rives*, President, Eastern Illinois University Who Pays the Piper . . . , *Paul Albright*, Director of Communications, Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education	
10:45 a.m.	COFFEE BREAK	
11:00a.m. - 12:25 p.m.	SESSION TWO: Program Evaluation . . . in the Face of Large Enrollments, *Jesse G. Delia*, University of Illinois, Urbana . . . in a Major University, *Annabel D. Hagood*, University of Alabama, University . . . in Undergraduate Only Institutions, *Beverly C. Reynolds*, Essex Community College	
12:30 p.m.	SEMINAR LUNCHEON	Vail Room, Radisson
1:30 p.m. - 2:00 p.m.	SESSION THREE: A Computer Program for Faculty Evaluation, *Theodore Clevenger, Jr.*, Florida State University	
2:00 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.	SESSION FOUR: MBO: Faculty Evaluation and Development, *Betty Jo Welch*, University of North Carolina, Wilmington	
3:00 p.m.	SOFT DRINK BREAK	
3:15 p.m. - 4:30 p.m.	CONCURRENT SESSIONS: Evaluation of Programs and Staff in Special Circumstances 1) Artistic Performance Evaluation, *Jon Whitmore*, West Virginia University 2) Post Tenure Evaluation and Faculty Development, *Michael R. Moore*, Purdue University, Calumet 3) Public Service Programs and Staff Evaluation, *Mary Frances HopKins*, Louisiana State University 4) Post-Tenure Evaluation and Faculty Development, *Emilie M. Rausch*, Meridian Junior College	
4:30 p.m.	SUMMARY and CONCLUSIONS: *Paul W. Batty*, Parkland College	
5:00 p.m.	ACA MEMBERSHIP BUSINESS MEETING, *Paul W. Batty*, ACA President,	
5:30 p.m.	ACA PRESIDENT'S RECEPTION FOR SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS AND ACA MEMBERS	

PREREGISTRATION FORM 13th Annual Seminar November 7, 1985

(Preregistration forms must reach the ACA National office no later than November 1)

_____$35 for ACA Members; _____$40 at the Seminar; _____$80 for non-ACA

NAME ______________________________

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RETURN TO: Robert N. Hall, ACA National Office, 5105 Backlick Road, #E, Annandale, VA 22003

MAKE CHECK PAYABLE TO: ACA

Remember: the fee includes coffee breaks and the luncheon

PEVITTS ADDED TO CONVENTION PROGRAM

Beverly Byers Pevitts, a Professor of theatre in the Department of Communication and Fine Arts at Kentucky Wesleyan College in Owensboro and the current President of the University and College Theatre Association of the ATA, has been added to the ACA program on evaluation of artistic work for tenure and promotion. Pevitts, who attended the Oxford Conference which produced the document providing guidelines, will serve as a respondent. The program had some other changes and now is as follows:

Saturday, November 9

7:00 p.m. - 8:15 p.m. RAMIFICATIONS OF THE OXFORD ACCORD — Gold Mezzanine Radisson

Chair: Sherwood Collins, Tufts University

Participants: Jon Whitmore, SUNY, Buffalo
James Symons, University of Colorado, Boulder
Donald Rosenberg, Miami University

Respondent: Beverly Byers Pevitts, Kentucky Wesleyan College

REMEMBER TO VOTE

As the Association begins its fifteenth year it is very important that the membership vote for the leadership that will guide it as it continues the efforts to reach a wider audience of communication arts and sciences administrators. Membership has grown each year since the founding in San Francisco, December, 1971. Membership has increased through the efforts of the elected officers who have reached out to other associations to offer the services of the ACA. This reaching out has brought affiliate relationships with administrators in speech, communication, theatre, radio-television-film, communication disorders, and journalism. The candidates on the ballot which was mailed to all active members on August 30 offer the opportunity to continue seeking a wider base with the communication arts and sciences. The six candidates on the ballot are: Dennis Gouran and Robert Smith; Robert Blanchard and Robert Goyer; and Beverly Reynolds and Richard Quianthy. Remember, voting is a privilege and an honor. Exercise that privilege. REMEMBER TO VOTE and return your ballot to the National Office by Monday, SEPTEMBER 30, 1985.

NEW BROCHURE AVAILABLE:
CAREERS IN COMMUNICATION ARTS AND SCIENCES

The new careers brochure, almost a year in the making, has at last been published. The text of the brochure has been rewritten by LaDonna M. Geddes with an assist by Patti Gillespie, Mary Frances Hopkins, N. Edd Miller, Robert N. Hall, and other members of the Executive Committee. After the text had been approved, it was turned over to a professional designer, Sarna Marcus of Amazing Graphics located in Bethesda, Maryland. Marcus completed the design that includes quotations, photographs, and addresses of associations. Although the process took much longer than anticipated when the third edition of the ACA careers brochure sold out in 1984, the new brochure is, we believe, a fine public relations device for the profession.

The brochure will sell for $1.00 per copy. Purchases of quantities of the brochure will result in a reduced price. Administrators have been sent an order form that includes the bulk prices.

1986 ACA CONVENTION CALL FOR PAPERS

ACA members are reminded that the 1986 Annual Seminar and Convention will be held at the Palmer House in Chicago, November 13-16, 1986. This is a preliminary call for papers dealing with administration at the junior college, college and university level. Persons interested in submitting a program proposal should include the names of participants, titles of papers, and an abstract. The deadline for submitting papers and completed programs to the President-Elect is February 15, 1986. A final call, with a theme should there be one, will appear in the January issue of the *Bulletin*.

BOOK REVIEWS

Lorayne W. Lester, Editor

Books that deal with administration in education (not necessarily the communication arts and sciences specifically) will be reviewed. Persons wishing to recommend books to be reviewed or persons wishing to serve as reviewers should write to: Lorayne W. Lester, Speech & Theatre Department, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37996.

INTEGRITY IN THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM: A REPORT TO THE ACADEMIC COMMUNITY

Association of American Colleges Project on Redefining the Meaning and Purpose of the Baccalaureate Degree. Washington, D.C. 47 pp. Paper. $3.00.

When the National Commission on Excellence in Education released its 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, Americans were shocked and shamed. It was, as George Leonard aptly put it, a "paper Sputnik", eliciting the same kind of public frustration and outrage. Suddenly, educational reform was the bandwagon to be on. The networks, the newspapers, the magazines, the politicians, everyone, it seemed, had something to say. Reports began to appear, eight of them within six months, with more in the offing.

Once the initial reaction ended, close analysis of the Commission report showed some fundamental problems. Behind the tough Cold War rhetoric lurked the cliches of earlier generations: more homework, more school days, more pay, more discipline, more math, etc. It was, as Leonard entitled his Esquire article, *The Great School Reform Hoax*. Why hoax? Because the *report writers, most of them hamstrung by organizational obligations and perceptions, are simply unwilling or unable to face the truth that they themselves proclaim.*

One group, however, has faced the truth. The Association of American Colleges faced the truth concerning the declining stature of the baccalaureate degree in its straightforward report, *Integrity in the College Curriculum*. This report is no hoax; it is concise, coherent, and compelling. So compelling, in fact, that the voluntary restraint apparent in the language suggests an underlying sense of urgency. As the authors point out, they *feared that our eventual report would be a voice crying in the wilderness. We now know that we have joined a chorus.*

Since World War II, the number of BA degrees has nearly tripled; nearly 70% of all degrees granted are baccalaureate, yet the respect and value of the education continues to decay. The AAC points fingers at no one but itself. Facing the truth, it contends that this decay is caused and nurtured by faculty members. The AAC urges taking a long, hard look at two areas of faculty responsibility: curriculum and professional standards.

A striking analogy is offered by the AAC: the college curriculum has become *a supermarket where students are shoppers and professors are merchants of learning . . . . Does it make sense for a college to offer a thousand courses to a student who will only take 36? The result is a student weakened by a lack of substance and structure but fattened by electives.*

There are, of course, a number of reasons for the general decline in scholastic integrity. Some are historical, some chronic, and many the result of state and federal policies. But, the AAC maintains, the single most damaging factor is the failure of the *responsibility of the faculty as a whole for the curriculum as a whole.*

Here, perhaps, is the great strength of this report. Pulling no punches, the AAC boldly addresses not only the problem, but it also offers some excellent, thought-provoking solutions. The message, however, is clear: in order to conquer the chronic paralysis of curriculum committees, the faculties must knock down walls, put a stop to the do-your-own-thing ethic, and offer bold, innovative, assertive leadership.

The unfortunate reality on campuses today is that many departments simply have ducked their responsibilities. Intent on protecting their own interests, desperate to maintain students in order to justify an existence, departments have become pedantic oysters, buried in the sands of immobility, perhaps containing some pearls of knowledge, but reluctant to part with them. There certainly is no sense of wholeness; it is every department for itself.

Granted, the administrations contribute to the curriculum incoherence. The primary factor is, of course, research and publication versus teaching. As the AAC report puts it, *the language of the academy is revealing: professors speak of teaching loads and research opportunities, never the reverse.*

Stressing that teaching must come first, the AAC report offers several possible incentives. Sabbaticals, for instance, could be offered not just for research and publication purposes, but also for demonstrated teaching improvement. Funds could be awarded for work that improves teacher effectiveness. A task force on curriculum development and experimentation, with release time and multi-departmental representation, could explore teaching and learning. This would almost alleviate the current problem of helplessness and self-servitude that permeates most curriculum groups. According to the AAC, these committees must be able to design courses, and they must be able to discriminate between what faculties want to teach and what they need to teach. The model curriculum committee should be responsive and resistant.

The report goes to far as to offer a required minimum curriculum. Citing the blurred distinction between graduate specialization and undergraduate generalization, the AAC

proposes a course of study in depth that combines fundamental inquiry, abstract thought, and critical analysis with basic literary, numerical, and historical consciousness. Science, values, and the arts are partnered in multi-centered experiences that offer deep, interdisciplinary awareness. Significantly, the AAC does not propose required courses or prescribed subjects. Instead, it makes an eloquent argument on behalf of understanding the importance of depth of experience and perspective, the *kind of focused inquiry that takes time; it releases students to testing of their own skills; it should not be hurried.*

Finally, the AAC stresses the oft-neglected area of accountability. The language is characteristically straightforward: *an institution that lacks refined instruments of program evaluation and rigorous instruments of student assessment is contributing to the debasement of baccalaureate education.* The evaluation should come from within; the faculty must design and maintain the institutional and social accounting.

Calling for the return of the profession of teaching, the style is again blunt but effective: *if the professional preparation of doctors were as minimal as that of college teachers, the United States would have more funeral directors than lawyers.*

Arthur Koestler once proposed the idea of the Holon, a structural entity of interdependent branches, replacing the unrealistic but popular sequential chair of structure. The Association of American Colleges has shown in bold fashion how such an idea can help the college teacher escape educational self-imprisonment and realistically begin to redefine the baccalaureate degree. The integrity of the BA can be restored, but faculties will need to reassert their primacy in the academy.

Stuart Byham
University of North Carolina, Greensboro

FACULTY RECRUITMENT, RETENTION, AND FAIR EMPLOYMENT: OBLIGATIONS AND OPPORTUNITIES

John S. Waggaman. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Research Report #2. Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education, 1983.

This report focuses on an analysis of issues involved in the process of faculty recruitment in higher education. The subject is placed within a broader context through an examination of what should occur both before recruiting begins and after an appointment is made. The approach emphasizes the role of the department chair, and the procedures are considered chronologically. The theme of fairness extends throughout the report.

Six major topics are covered. In addressing the first, "Availability of Positions and Vacancies", Waggaman stresses the need for long-range planning by a department chair. He identifies five major reasons for vacancies, analyzes the issues raised by the particular circumstances, and suggests appropriate procedures to follow. The section entitled "Preliminary Planning" explains steps which must be completed before recruiting begins, with special attention to issues involved in determining salary as well as affirmative action requirements. "Organizing Recruitment" provides specific recommendations for the organization of search committees, the preparation and circulation of announcements, and efficient record keeping. Under the heading "Screening Applicants' Files", he presents a plan to guide search committees in reviewing applications in a systematic and fair manner. The next section considers "The Campus Visit and Final Decisions" and traces the steps to be followed from the time the search committee submits its recommendation to the department head until the search is terminated. In developing the last major topic, "Retaining New Faculty", the author specifies approaches that can be used to assist new faculty in becoming successful members of their departments.

The book identifies important policy issues that administrators in the 1980s should consider. Treatment is thorough and is based on extensive research. The specific procedures included also make the report useful as a practical guide by the department chair charged with the responsibility of faculty recruitment.

The report is well organized and clearly written. There did need to be more consistency in the use of he or she or alternative phrasing to avoid the generic he in parts of the report, however.

Department heads should find this book to be a valuable resource. It also should be helpful to faculty members who serve on search committees.

Norma C. Cook
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Articles are welcomed for consideration for publication in the BULLETIN. Manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced. Three copies of each manuscript plus return postage must be submitted.

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